DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 271 402 SO 017 458

AUTHOR Stocking, Carol B.; Curry, Glen David
TITLE Postsecondary Plans of U.S. and Japanese High School Seniors: An Introductory Comparative Analysis.
SPONS AGENCY Office of Educational Research and Improvement (ED), Washington, DC.
PUB DATE Jan 86
NOTE 67p.; For other studies in this series on education in Japan, see SO 017 338 and SO 017 443-460.
PUB TYPE Reports - Descriptive (141)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC03 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Comparative Education; *Cross Cultural Studies; Cultural Differences; *Educational Anthropology; Foreign Countries; High Schools; *High School Students; Postsecondary Education; Private Colleges; Public Schools; Secondary School Curriculum; *Student Educational Objectives; Two Year Colleges; Vocational Education
IDENTIFIERS High School and Beyond (NCES); *Japan; *United States; United States Study of Education in Japan

ABSTRACT

Using data gathered from the High School and Beyond study, a comparative analysis of the social processes related to the postsecondary plans of high school seniors in the United States and Japan was conducted. Differentiations are seen between students choosing to enter the labor market directly from school and those choosing to attend a trade or vocational school. Variations in educational systems and questionnaire design generate a distinction in the United States between attending a junior college for vocational and academic courses, while in Japan a distinction is noted between those attending private and national universities. Sex is an important defining factor in both countries. In Japan, 89 percent of students planning to attend junior colleges are female and the percent of Japanese females planning to attend four-year colleges is about half that of their United States counterparts. In both countries, higher family income and higher educational attainment of the father is associated with higher postsecondary aspiration levels for students. Pronounced differences in the role of private and public schools and the impact of these differences is noted. In the United States, educational level of postsecondary aspiration is positively related to attending private school; in Japan, it is negatively related. Simple path modeling of the impact of family income, father's education, high school grades and time spent doing homework reveal a great deal of comparative similarity in the social process of postsecondary aspiration in the two countries. (CFR)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED271402

POSTSECONDARY PLANS OF U.S. AND JAPANESE HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS: AN INTRODUCTORY COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS

Carol B. Stocking
Glen David Curry

January 1986

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

X This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

SP017458

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

MASTER

POSTSECONDARY PLANS OF U.S. AND JAPANESE HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS: AN INTRODUCTORY COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS

Carol B. Stocking

G. David Curry

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Using data gathered from 1980 high school seniors in the High School and Beyond studies in the U.S. and Japan, an introductory comparative analysis of the social processes related to students' postsecondary aspirations is conducted.

While in both data sets students choosing to enter the labor market directly upon completion of high school and those choosing to attend a trade or vocational school can be differentiated, variations in educational systems and questionaire design generate a distinction in the U.S. between attending a junior college for vocational and academic courses and a distinction in Japan between attending private and national universities. An underlying consideration is that a substantial proportion of U.S. students (approximately 25 percent of the total cohort) directly entering the labor force in the U.S. are excluded from the analysis because they dropped out of high school prior to their senior year.

Sex of the student is an important defining factor in any comparison of postsecondary aspiration across the two countries. In Japan, 89 percent of students planning to attend junior colleges are female, and the percentage of Japanese female seniors (25 percent) planning to attend four-year colleges is

about half that of their U.S. counterparts (47 percent).

The groups of students choosing various postsecondary options can be distinguished by family background in that the higher the family income and the higher fathers' education, the greater the educational level of postsecondary aspiration in both countries. Complications associated with direct comparisons of occupational structures across the two countries lead to a straightforward tabular presentation of results with respect to this criterion. However, the importance of father's occupation in defining postsecondary aspiration in both cultures can be conjectured from the tables.

There are pronounced differences in the role of private versus public schools in the two countries, and the impact of these differences is reflected in the results of the two surveys. In the U.S., educational level of postsecondary aspiration is positively related to attending private school; in Japan, it is negatively related. While tracking in high schools is indicated to be of importance to postsecondary aspiration in educational systems, there tentatively seems to be a tighter bond between vocational programming in Japanese high schools and postsecondary aspirations. Reported amount of homework and high school grades impact in anticipated fashion on the postsecondary aspirations in both societies, although the impact of grades is much less marked in Japan.

Postsecondary aspiration is found to be a factor in choice of postsecondary educational subject matter and occupational

aspiration at age 30 with sex of student playing a crucial role in defining the vision of postsecondary life in both societies. Postsecondary aspiration and sex of student structure the distribution of answers to nine attitudinal questions focusing on the importance of aspects of social life to the seniors in each culture.

Simple path modeling of the impact of family income, father's education, high school grades, and time spent doing homework on educational level of postsecondary aspiration reveal a great deal of comparative similarity in the social process of postsecondary aspiration in the two countries.

Though a great deal of summary information is presented in the report, a considerably greater agenda for more detailed comparative analysis of these data sets is suggested for the future.

January 1986

POSTSECONDARY PLANS OF U.S. AND JAPANESE HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS: AN INTRODUCTORY COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS **

Carol B. Stocking
Glen David Curry

> Pulling isolated statistics out of two social worlds can be misleading if we forget that any single comparison involves many basic societal differences . . . I must ask the reader's alert cooperation in avoiding the pitfalls of jumping to unwarranted conclusions . . . We know that cause and effect are rarely a simple calculation in our own society, but the same level of sophisticated understanding is rarely established about other societies. This is a point worth remembering (Rohlen, p. 8).

Comparisons of Japanese and American secondary schools students, or of students in higher education, is facilitated by the apparent similarity of the diversified education systems in the two nations. It is also simplified for scholars from both countries by the ability of Japanese researchers to read American sources, and by the American researcher's access to the many statistical compendia provided in English by Mombusho and other organizations.

But research on the macro level of statistical compendia often involves frustrations. Research questions must be defined by available statistics. Tsukada points out that "using national statistics to make [U.S.-Japanese] cross-national comparisons always raises questions of data comparability, because statistics collected by different countries tend not to be strictly comparable" (p. 135).

Some excellent research by American scholars on Japanese high schools has been done by ethnographic methods, or by collecting data from a small number of schools or from a set of schools in a few geographic areas. However, cross-national comparisons drawn from data collected by such methods, also presents problems. "Even in this small land [Japan] whose educational syster

** Commissioned paper for National Institute of Education, U.S. Study of Education in Japan

is said to preserve uniformity, there are considerable differences according to the level of education, and also among districts and individual schools. Therefore, the examples the researchers accidentally have met naturally produce variations in their reports" (Ichikawa, p. 5).

There are of course some very important books about contemporary Japanese education already available to persons who cannot read Japanese (for example, Bowman, Cummings 1980 and 1985; Rohlen). None of these, however, is based on cross-national data. Rohlen's invaluable study relies on data from a small number of schools but it provides voluminous additional system-wide information and insights into the secondary education system not available in English anywhere else. Bowman does a similar service with her work on educational choice and the labor market in Japan. As interest among American researchers in the Japanese education system continues, data-based comparisons between the two education systems will become more informed and perceptive.

Although there is a literature on comparative achievement, there is little data known to us which is based on identical questions asked of national samples of secondary school students in the two countries. This paper represents our first attempt to try to understand elements involved in post-secondary plans by looking at comparative data collected from national samples of students in both countries. It becomes critical then to establish the quality of the data sets we are analyzing.

The High School and Beyond Data Sets

The High School and Beyond study in the U.S. is sponsored by the National Center for Education Statistics. Data were collected from a sample of seniors (and of sophomores not reported on here) enrolled in a probability sample of about 1000 public and private high schools. Base year data were

collected in the early part of 1980, and about 12,000 members of each cohort were followed up in 1982 and 1984 (and will be again in 1986). Questionnaires were also collected from the principals (or their designates) of the sample schools, from a subsample of parents, and from classroom teachers. The students took an hour of cognitive tests. Transcript information has also been added to the data file. Data tapes and documentation are available to any interested parties from the National Center for Education Statistics in the U.S. Department of Education.

In Japan, Dr. Tamotsu Sengoku, Director of the Japan Youth Research Institute, anticipated the importance of U.S.-Japan comparative research and designed his project to parallel the American study. (Dr. Sengoku has made his data available to the authors for the analysis presented here.) Questionnaires were collected in the fall of 1980 from about 7,000 seniors of 46 public and private high schools in 10 regions of Japan. Data were also collected from principals and teachers. Follow-up data from the students were collected in 1982. Only the 1980 senior cohort was studied in Japan, and only that data and data from the U.S. 1980 senior cohort are reported here. There are about fifty identical questions in the Japanese and American base year questionnaires.

For detailed analyses of the base year, weights must be applied to the U.S. data and are also indicated for the Japanese data. In this paper we discuss simple unweighted distributions of responses in the two settings and provide weighted percentages in the tables for reference.

The U.S. High School and Beyond study is widely known (and very fully documented elsewhere). We will provide some additional information about the sample used for the Japanese High School and Beyond study since this information is not available elsewhere in English. (Two volumes comparing the U.S.

and Japanese data have been published in Japanese. The titles are listed in English in the Bibliography under Japan Youth Research Institute.)

The Japanese sample is a stratified random sample of public and private secondary schools in Japan. Two categories of high schools were excluded from the Japanese sample: national high schools (which enrolled about 2 percent of secondary school students there in 1980) and technical colleges (which include both upper secondary and two additional years of schooling and enroll less than 1 percent of secondary school students).

The strata used in the Japanese sample are: a) Community size-type (cities over one million, seats of prefectural government excluding those over a million, and all others); b) region (ten conventional geographic regions in Japan); c) school foundation (public or private). Within these strata forty-six schools (two thirds general and one third vocational) were selected according to the population of students in schools of the type. Three to six schools were selected from each of the regions. All students in four home rooms in each school were selected to participate in the survey (making a total of 7239 students).

From material in the Japanese publications on this data it appears that the sample slightly underrepresents students from schools in cities over a million (16.5 percent in the sample as compared with 20.8 percent), and closely represents those from the seats of prefectural governments (10.7 percent in the sample as compared to 11.2 percent). Students from schools in places in the residual category are somewhat overrepresented (72.8 percent in the sample as compared to 68.0 percent in the population). Students from private schools are also somewhat overrepresented (33.8 percent in the sample as compared to 29.3 percent). We are developing a weighting scheme for the Japanese data.

Comparing Secondary Education Systems

Before we try to think about what comparisons of postsecondary choices in the two systems may reveal, we must have certain background information clearly in mind.

First, we should constantly be aware that about 95 percent of the age cohort graduates from secondary school in Japan. This must be compared with the 75 percent of the cohort that graduates in the U.S. In all of our comparisons in this paper, the bottom of the U.S. distribution of the cohort is not represented. This is the case in every table; "entry from school into the labor market" never includes those U.S. young people who have left school and entered the labor force prior to their senior year when this data was collected.

Second, since there is current political interest in the U.S. in the role of the private sector in education and the role government support might play in that sector, Japan presents an interesting case to study.

About 30 percent of students are enrolled in private secondary schools in Japan. However, Rohlen points out that private schools there, in general, are held in low esteem (p. 15).

In most school districts in Japan there are five or more schools which are known to vary in quality. The best students are given the first chance to enter the best school. Weaker students end up in lower quality schools, and a generally agreed upon academic hierarchy is established.

In general, vocational schools are considered to be at the bottom of that hierarchy, although there are some which have hard entrance exams. This low prestige exists in spite of the fact that job opportunities for vocational graduates have been good (Anderson, p. 155). "Many youth who do end up with an assignment in the public sector to a vocational school make an effort

to move into the private sector" (Cummings, pp. 26-27). We begin to see the different functions of private schools in the two settings.

Third, students pay tuition at public upper secondary schools as well as at private schools. In 1981 Mombusho reported that the average fee for a public upper secondary school was about $250 per year (¥59,643 tuition, ¥1,358 entrance fee). The average fee for a private school was about $1500 a year (¥166,863 for tuition; ¥98,866 entrance fee; ¥98,997 facilities support) (Mombusho, p. 88).

Interest-free government loans are available to all but upper income parents to cover fees at public or private upper secondary schools. A loan for students in public upper secondary schools amounts to ¥7,000 per month; for a student in private schools a loan of ¥18,000 per month is offered. The former amount would seem to cover the entire cost of a public upper secondary school and the latter about half of the cost at a private school. (There are other kinds of loans available too.)

In addition to student loans, the government subsidizes prefectures to support private upper secondary schools (70 billion yen in 1980 for private schools grades K through 12).

Data from public and private schools in Japan and the U.S. are included in the subsequent analysis. As Bowman points out, private schools in Japan are extremely heterogeneous in quality, size and curriculum. We are cautious in our discussions of the effects of going to private schools on postsecondary choices because of the small sample size (14).

Postsecondary Options in Japan

1. Entering the Labor Market Directly from High School

The unemployment rate in Japan in 1980 for persons in the 15-19 age range was 6.0 (as compared to 17.6 in the U.S.) (p. 76, Japan 1984). However, young men entering the labor market after finishing upper secondary school are called "silver eggs" in Japan (valuable but hard to find) and demand for males in this category significantly exceeds supply (Kato). And, since, as Cantor points out, most vocational training in Japan is provided by private industry, at least some of these labor market entrants may expect to receive vocational training on the job.

2. Postsecondary Vocational Schools

Our data do not differentiate between the two types of schools at which vocational education is available in Japan. Students in Japan indicating vocational training may be planning on either of the following types of school.

a. Miscellaneous Schools (kakushu gakko)

In May of 1980 there were 5,303 such schools of which virtually all were private (97 percent). These schools include cooking schools, driving schools, flower arrangement classes, typing schools and many others (Kato, p. 36). Overall, in 1980 about two thirds of all students enrolled in vocational schools attended such schools.

b. Special Training Schools (senshu gakko)

In 1976 a subset of miscellaneous schools were placed under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Education. Schools which met certain requirements (at least one continuous year of education, more than 800 hours of instruction, and a minimum of 40 full-time students) were reclassified as senshu gakko which Mombusho translates as "special training schools." In 1980 there were 2,520 such schools of which 87 percent were private.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Senshu gakko offer courses in a wide variety of areas including, for example, civil engineering and architecture, electricity, electronics, hospital nursing, accounting and bookkeeping, foreign languages, secretarial skills and nursery teaching.

Aso and Kondo have studied senshu gakko. Their data indicate that students select these schools for specific occupational training and that virtually all senshu gakko offer licenses or certificates of various kinds. (Unfortunately, the other aspects of their research, employer opinion of senshu gakko graduates, shows that employers do not consider them differently from students of the less structured miscellaneous schools.)

Although senshu gakko are somewhat regulated, they are free to adapt to market conditions and to open new departments without much constraint. Tuition fees are often higher than those of junior colleges, but the courses are shorter so that the total cost of getting a certificate is lower.

3. Junior Colleges

In 1955 there were 264 junior colleges in Japan. By 1980 there were 517 junior colleges in Japan; of those 84 percent were private. Fees for junior colleges averaged $2300 per year (¥251,831 tuition, ¥166,784 entrance fee, ¥137,128 facilities supplement). The most salient single fact about junior colleges is that 89 percent of the students are female.

Two years at junior college cost less than four years in a private college, and there is very little difference in the lifetime income of female junior college graduates and female senior college graduates.

Credits earned at junior colleges may be applied to programs in four-year colleges but transfer to four-year institutions is difficult. (Partly because of the entrance examinations which are given to prospective transfer-in students at four year schools [Anderson, p. 218].)

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

4. Colleges and Universities

The hierarchy of colleges and universities somewhat resembles that of the institutions in the U.S. Although, since it is based on the wide publication and interest in admission ratios and other statistics, the detail of the hierarchy in Japan may be more generally agreed upon. The most prestigious universities are the ones featured in the examination hell literature. Amano describes the hierarchy as follows: at the top there are the seven old national universities, next are two prestigious private universities (Waseda and Keio), then the first rated nationals, the second rated nationals, private colleges established before the war, and private colleges established after the war (quoted in Maruyama, p. 128).

Mombusho provides information about three kinds of institutions, national, local government (sometimes called public) and private. There were 228 universities in Japan in 1955. In 1980 there were 446. Of these 93 (20.9 percent) are national, 34 are public and 319 (71.5 percent) are private. The percentage of students enrolled in each type is virtually identical to the percentage of institutions in the type. Costs at a national university in 1980 were about $1070 a year (¥180,000 tuition, ¥80,000 entrance fee). At private colleges the cost was about $2900 per year (¥355,156 tuition, ¥190,113 entrance fee, and ¥159,621 facilities support) (Mombusho, p. 88).

> "The traditional policy of the Japanese central government was to concentrate education resources in the public sector in order to preserve academic quality, while leaving quantitative expansion to private institutions . . .[Faced with increasing quality imbalance between the public and private sectors, the government changed its policy in 1970.] This was perhaps the greatest reversal of educational policy in Japan's history" (Kitamura, pp. 189-190).

By 1978 government subsidies had come to cover about a third of operating costs of private colleges (Aso & Amano, p. 97).

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

It seems to many observers that there is some irony in the relatively low fees at national universities since most students at those universities come from higher income families. And entrance to these universities does open doors. Major companies permit graduates of only certain faculties within specific universities to take entrance examinations for employment. "A survey in 1979 showed that 29% of Japanese businesses permitted graduates of only particular departments or faculties of particular universities to take exams; 22% allowed graduates of all universities but not all departments; and 36% were open to all" (Ushiogi, p. 9).

Note on Women, Postsecondary Education, and the Labor Force in Japan

> Except for limited areas of employment, such as civil service (including teaching jobs in public schools) women are treated differently from men. For instance, the banking business will recruit hundreds of women who have graduated either from high school or junior college as tellers and secretaries: these positions are exclusively for women . . . Generally speaking, it is safe to say that women are expected to perform supplementary clerical work for men (Kato, p. 24).

It is hard for female four-year college graduates to find jobs in the private sector.

Sengoku points out that the phrase "chair employment" (koshikake shushoku) is used to describe the employment of women in Japan. (A job is like a chair that women only perch on temporarily. This is in contrast to "permanent employment" [eikyu shushoku] which for a woman means marriage.) Junior colleges, or schools for brides, have been established as "vocational schools" for women's permanent employment.

Some indicate that junior colleges do not overly educate women or encourage them to be disobedient, so that managers are able to order junior college graduates to serve tea. Junior colleges are often located in a young

BEST COPY AVAIL

woman's home neighborhood and provide a safe, conservative climate for her education. In 1980 about 27 percent of junior college students were studying home economics, 24 percent pedagogy, and 22 percent humanities.

Female four-year college graduates are often disadvantaged in the labor market. It is expected that they will leave their "chair" employment at about age 23. Junior college graduates will work two additional years before leaving the labor force (at about age 23) to begin their "permanent employment." Woronoff paints a bleak picture for female four-year college graduates. "Literally millions of them who graduate with no specialization or skills end up working 'office ladies' glorified secretaries or so-called assistants" (p. 103). Kato calls them "flowers of the office."

The reality of the labor market reaches deeply into the Japanese educational system, so that the proportion of girls who enter the top-ranked academic high schools is low. (For example, in the Japanese High School and Beyond data only a quarter of the students in the best schools are female.)

Introduction to the Analysis

In this paper, using data collected from high school seniors in the U.S. and in Japan, we will examine how family background variables (father's education, family income and father's occupation), and high school experience (public or private school, high school program, hours spent on homework and self-reported grades) are distributed within groups of students with various postsecondary plans. Our particular focus is on immediate postsecondary choice--whether a student plans to enter the labor market, seek vocational training or enter a two- or four-year college. We will examine characteristics of students making these choices in the U.S. and Japan, first with a series of cross tabulations and then with a more elaborate model of background and school variables.

The circumstances of and competition for entrance in elite Japanese universities has been much reported on in the American press. Tobin suggests that we

> need to look less at the top students and top schools in each society and more at the middle and bottom . . . We need to learn more of the experiences of average students in each country, . . . or mediocre students, or students who don't make it, and of the recruitment of young people in each country into unskilled jobs and even into the world of unemployment (pp. 20-21).

This paper is a step in the direction he suggests.

Postsecondary Plans

Students in the United States and in Japan enter a critical path when they begin secondary school. In the U.S., assignments to (or sometimes choice of) high school program has long-term effects on the options open to a student. Similarly, in Japan, entrance into an excellent academic high school, a less prestigious comprehensive or academic public or private high school, or a vocational school is the beginning of a long-term decision process.

The original focus of our analysis was those students in the U.S. and in Japan who expect to go to vocational schools after high school or to community (in the U.S.) or junior colleges (in Japan). So that we might better understand which students in each setting select these forms of postsecondary schooling we contrast them with students who plan to enter the labor force directly and those who plan to go to four-year colleges or universities. Because we thought it would be illuminating, we have maintained slightly different groupings of these choices in the two settings. In the U.S., the data allow us to separate those students who expect to attend two-year colleges to take academic courses from those who plan vocational courses at two-year colleges. In Japan, the data permit separation of students who hope to go to national universities from those who expect to go to private colleges/universities.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

The basic distribution of student choices we will discuss in detail below, is presented in table 1. There are so few males planning to attend junior college in Japan that we will omit discussion of males in that category.

(Table 1)

The percentage of Japanese female seniors (25 percent) planning to attend four-year colleges is about half that of the U.S. (47 percent). The percentage of U.S. male seniors who plan to attend four-college (45 percent) is about three quarters that of Japanese males (60 percent). We should also bear in mind that about 41 percent of the age cohort in Japan plan to attend college. In the U.S. about 29 percent of the age cohort plan to attend college. If we apply Cogan's estimates of college completion in the two countries (95 percent for Japan and 70 percent for the U.S.), we see that about 39 percent of the age cohort may be expected to graduate from college in Japan as compared to about 20 percent of the age cohort in the U.S. (p. 467).

Family Background

We began our exploration of factors associated with postsecondary choices in the two cultures by looking at three family background variables; family income, father's education and father's occupation to see how they are distributed within each choice.

a. Family Income

In an attempt to think comparatively about the backgrounds of students, we started with two rough measures derived from raw data. The first of these is family income, which we divided into high, medium and low in each setting. Our definition of "low" in the U.S. was $12,000 per year or less (reported by 26.6 percent of U.S. students). In Japan it was less than 2.99 million yen

Table 1. Post Secondary Plans of 1980 High School Seniors for Japan and U.S. (unweighted)

	JAPAN						U.S.					
	Males		Females		Total		Males		Females		Total	
Enter Labor Market	1287	17.8%	1280	17.7%	2567	35.5%	1454	12.1%	1394	11.6%	2848	23.7%
Vocational/Trade School	276	3.8%	379	5.2%	655	9.0%	309	2.6%	436	3.6%	745	6.2%
Junior College	34	0.5%	606	8.4%	640	8.8%	714	6.0%	1041	8.7%	1755	14.6%
Junior College (Vocational)	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	300	2.5%	390	3.3%	690	5.8%
Junior College (Academic)	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	414	3.5%	651	5.4%	1065	8.9%
College	2391	33.0%	762	10.5%	3153	43.6%	2044	17.0%	2539	21.2%	4583	38.2%
Private University	1071	14.8%	336	4.6%	1407	19.4%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
National University	1320	18.2%	426	5.9%	1746	24.1%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Other	93	1.3%	67	0.9%	160	2.2%	727	6.1%	550	4.6%	1277	10.6%

Missing Values:		JAPAN		US		
	Plan	61	0.8%	Plan	787	6.6%
	Sex	3	.0%			

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

per year (reported by 27.6 percent of Japanese students). For the U.S. we set "high" as more than $25,000 per year (23.5 percent) and in Japan we defined it as more than 5.00 million yen per year (26.0 percent). So for each country we have a rough notion of the upper quarter of the sample income distribution, the lower quarter, and a middle group of about half of the students (49.9) percent in the U.S. and 46.4 percent in Japan. Perhaps we should point out one cultural similarity: many students in both settings did not answer the family income question. In the U.S. 17 percent (1946) and in Japan 19 percent (1389) left it blank.

We then looked at the proportion of students with various postsecondary plans who reported family incomes at each of these levels.

(Table 2)

Looking at table 2 one would be hard pressed to venture a guess where, if anywhere, differences between the two countries may lie. The distributions are remarkably similar. In each setting the proportion from the high income group increases (neatly, except for vocational training in the U.S.) and the proportion from the low income group decreases as we ascend the education aspiration ladder.

b. Father's Education

We also developed a simplified measure of father's education in the two countries: less than high school graduation, high school graduation, two or more years of college. These categories existed in the data, except for the first in Japan. There we called primary, high primary, middle under old system, and a new system junior high "less than high school." In the U.S. this gave us a raw distribution of 30.2 percent less than high school (44.3 percent in Japan), in the U.S. 49.2 percent high school graduates (30.6 percent

Table 2. Proportion of 1980 High School Seniors with Various Postsecondary Plans from Families with Low, Medium or High Incomes in Japan and the U.S.

Postsecondary Plan	Family Income Level	JAPAN n	JAPAN UNWTD	JAPAN WTD	U.S. n	U.S. UNWTD	U.S. WTD
Enter Labor Market	Low	762	39.2%	40.1%	788	32.5%	21.0%
	Middle	881	45.3%	43.5%	1237	51.0%	57.3%
	High	300	15.4%	16.4%	402	16.6%	21.7%
Vocational/Trade School	Low	189	33.5%	31.6%	193	29.8%	20.0%
	Middle	262	46.5%	49.4%	362	56.0%	60.8%
	High	113	20.0%	19.0%	92	14.2%	19.2%
Junior College	Low	113	21.8%	19.6%	375	23.9%	17.3%
	Middle	275	53.1%	52.3%	828	52.7%	53.5%
	High	130	25.1%	28.1%	367	23.4%	29.1%
Junior College (Vocational)	Low	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	169	27.3%	18.5%
	Middle				335	54.2%	56.6%
	High				114	18.4%	24.9%
Junior College (Academic)	Low	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	206	21.6%	16.6%
	Middle				493	51.8%	51.5%
	High				253	26.6%	31.9%
College	Low	492	18.6%	17.3%	888	21.4%	13.0%
	Middle	1222	46.2%	46.6%	1960	47.3%	44.4%
	High	931	35.2%	36.1%	1299	31.3%	42.5%
Private University	Low	206	17.4%	15.3%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
	Middle	545	46.1%	46.2%			
	High	432	36.5%	38.5%			
National University	Low	286	19.6%	18.5%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
	Middle	677	46.3%	46.8%			
	High	499	34.1%	34.7%			
Other		160			1277		
Total	Low	1617	27.6%	25.3%	2675	26.6%	17.9%
	Middle	2712	46.4%	46.3%	5014	49.9%	51.6%
	High	1521	26.0%	28.4%	2360	23.5%	30.5%
Missing Family Income		1389	19.2%		1946	16.9%	

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

in Japan) and 20.6 percent with two or more years of college in the U.S. as compared to 25.1 percent in Japan.

(Table 3)

In table 3 we again see a generally orderly progression. As educational aspirations rise the percentage of students with fathers who have less than high school education decreases. Since our comparative groupings are unequal in size except at the top, let us look specifically at students whose fathers had junior college or college degrees. In both cultures the proportion of students with highly educated fathers decreases from the group planning to attend four-year colleges, to the group planning junior college, to the group going directly into the labor market. Note that the educational level of the fathers of students planning to enter vocational school differs in the two countries.

c. Father's Occupation

At first we planned to combine occupation codes and to compare them directly in the two settings. However, the size-of-establishment dimension, so important in Japan, resisted our Draconian efforts.

Ushiogi makes clear why size of firm is so important in Japan. Big companies (with more than 1,000 employees) offer much higher salaries, more fringe benefits, higher social prestige, and greater stability. A male age 45-49 in a big firm is paid 1.5 times as much in salary and bonuses as a man with a similar job in a small company. This is true for university graduates and for high school graduates (p. 4).

Instead of direct comparison we show in table 4 father's occupation for youth choosing each of the postsecondary options, and append a more complete list of codes to clarify the abbreviated table stubs.

Table 3. Proportion of 1980 High School Seniors, with Various Postsecondary Plans Whose Fathers Have Less than High School, High School or College Educations in Japan and the U.S. (weighted & unweighted)

Postsecondary Plan	Father's Educational Level	JAPAN n	JAPAN UNWTD	JAPAN WTD	U.S. n	U.S. UNWTD	U.S. WTD
Enter Labor Market	Less than HS Graduate	890	66.9%	63.4%	762	40.3%	32.8%
	HS Graduate	376	28.2%	30.0%	887	46.9%	51.6%
	More than 2 Yrs College	65	4.9%	6.6%	244	12.9%	15.5%
Vocational/Trade School	Less than HS Graduate	199	50.5%	43.6%	219	41.9%	30.9%
	HS Graduate	135	34.3%	37.1%	251	48.0%	54.3%
	More than 2 Yrs College	60	15.2%	19.3%	53	10.1%	14.8%
Junior College	Less than HS Graduate	187	39.5%	37.2%	382	28.5%	19.5%
	HS Graduate	168	35.4%	31.9%	616	45.9%	52.5%
	More than 2 Yrs College	119	25.1%	31.0%	344	25.6%	26.0%
Junior College (Vocational)	Less than HS Graduate	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	171	34.5%	22.9%
	HS Graduate				231	46.7%	55.2%
	More than 2 Yrs College				93	18.8%	22.0%
Junior College (Academic)	Less than HS Graduate	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	211	24.9%	17.4%
	HS Graduate				385	45.5%	50.9%
	More than 2 Yrs College				251	29.6%	31.8%
College	Less than HS Graduate	752	31.1%	26.6%	778	21.6%	13.1%
	HS Graduate	744	30.7%	29.8%	1452	40.4%	40.5%
	More than 2 Yrs College	924	38.2%	43.6%	1368	38.0%	46.3%
Private University	Less than HS Graduate	353	33.3%	27.9%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
	HS Graduate	317	29.9%	28.4%			
	More than 2 Yrs College	391	36.9%	43.6%			
National University	Less than HS Graduate	399	29.4%	25.9%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
	HS Graduate	427	31.4%	30.6%			
	More than 2 Yrs College	533	39.2%	43.5%			
Other		160			1277		
Total	Less than HS Graduate	2103	44.3%	37.8%	2525	30.2%	22.6%
	HS Graduate	1453	30.6%	30.4%	4109	49.2%	46.9%
	More than 2 Yrs College	1192	25.1%	31.7%	1717	20.6%	30.5%
Missing Father's Education		2491	34.4%		3644	30.4%	

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

In the overall distribution of U.S. answers, "do not live with father" was given by 1396 (12.1 percent) of the respondents. Only the category "craftsman" was selected more often. In Japan the most selected categories were: 03, section or division chief, director of government or public office, postmaster (14.1 percent); 02, proprietor or manager of small business with fewer than 5 employees (11.7 percent); and 11, carpenter, plasterer, joiner, engine driver (11.2 percent).

(Table 4 and Appendices)

First, we note that in the U.S. about 12 percent of students in each category report that they have no male guardian. Educational plans seem independent of that fact. In Japan, from 2.5 percent to 6.5 percent coded "Does not apply" and we assume that they have no male guardian. The larger percentages are among those going directly into the labor market or planning for vocational training. It is impossible here to estimate the effect of family stability in Japan on the educational aspirations and attainment of young people there. Although the percentage of young people with absent fathers is evenly distributed among the choices in the U.S., it is probable that a large proportion of the 25 percent of the age cohort not in the U.S. data, also have absent fathers. These responses would appear in the labor market column of table 4.

Second, the children of craftsmen are represented in roughly the same proportion (10-15 percent) at every level of educational choice in the U.S. Managers-owners of very small businesses are similarly represented (9-14 percent) across the Japanese portion on the table.

Table 4. Proportion of 1980 High School Seniors with Various Postsecondary Plans with Fathers in Selected Occupational Categories in Japan and the U.S. (unweighted)

JAPAN

	Working		Trade School		Jr. College		College Total		Private College		National University	
1 Farm/Fish/Forest	282	11.0%	39	6.0%	39	6.1%	138	4.4%	63	4.5%	75	4.3%
2 Manager/Owner 1	242	9.4%	80	12.2%	94	14.7%	372	11.8%	189	13.4%	183	10.5%
3 Manager 2	150	5.8%	68	10.4%	104	16.3%	640	20.3%	285	20.2%	355	20.3%
4 Professional 1	3	0.1%	10	1.5%	8	1.3%	159	5.0%	66	4.7%	93	5.3%
5 Professional 2	86	3.4%	46	7.0%	46	7.2%	330	10.5%	133	9.4%	197	11.3%
6 Professional 3	1	.0%	2	0.3%	1	0.2%	14	0.4%	7	0.5%	7	0.4%
7 Clerical 1	127	4.9%	46	7.0%	79	12.3%	309	9.8%	127	9.0%	182	10.4%
8 Clerical 2	88	3.4%	40	6.1%	29	4.5%	241	7.6%	103	7.3%	138	7.9%
9 Skill/Operative 1	114	4.4%	28	4.3%	25	3.9%	96	3.0%	50	3.5%	46	2.6%
10 Skill/Operative 2	309	12.0%	80	12.2%	45	7.0%	187	5.9%	90	6.4%	97	5.6%
11 Skill/Operative 3	409	15.9%	83	12.7%	59	9.2%	179	5.7%	92	6.5%	87	5.0%
12 Sales	43	1.7%	13	2.0%	6	0.9%	39	1.2%	23	1.6%	16	0.9%
13 Service	25	1.0%	6	0.9%	5	0.8%	20	0.6%	11	0.8%	9	0.5%
14 Police/EDF/Prot.	30	1.2%	11	1.7%	14	2.2%	59	1.9%	21	1.5%	38	2.2%
15 Other	33	1.3%	9	1.4%	8	1.3%	25	0.8%	14	1.0%	11	0.6%
16 Not Working	21	0.8%	5	0.8%	4	0.6%	16	0.5%	6	0.4%	10	0.6%
17 Does Not Apply	166	6.5%	33	5.0%	21	3.3%	91	2.9%	35	2.5%	56	3.2%
Other Plan	160						814	11.2%				

Missing Father's Occupation

US

Code		Working		Trade School		Jr. College Trade		Jr. College Academic		Jr. College Total		College	
0	No Male Guardian	354	12.4%	98	13.2%	92	13.3%	111	10.4%	203	11.4%	550	12.0%
1	Clerical	46	1.6%	15	2.0%	10	1.4%	28	2.6%	38	2.1%	82	1.8%
2	Crafts	417	14.6%	113	15.2%	78	11.3%	129	12.1%	207	11.6%	464	10.1%
3	Farm	129	4.5%	43	5.8%	31	4.5%	35	3.3%	66	3.7%	106	2.3%
4	Homemaker	12	0.4%	2	0.3%	1	0.1%	4	0.4%	5	0.3%	4	0.1%
5	Laborer	324	11.4%	90	12.1%	72	10.4%	104	9.8%	176	9.9%	357	7.8%
6	Management	168	5.9%	46	6.2%	49	7.1%	111	10.4%	160	9.0%	523	11.4%
7	Military	42	1.5%	8	1.1%	8	1.2%	22	2.1%	30	1.7%	94	2.1%
8	Operative	326	11.4%	88	11.8%	81	11.7%	102	9.6%	183	10.3%	386	8.4%
9	Professional 1	87	3.1%	20	2.7%	32	4.6%	58	5.4%	90	5.0%	303	6.6%
10	Professional 2	43	1.5%	8	1.1%	19	2.8%	40	3.8%	59	3.3%	318	6.9%
11	Proprietor/Owner	123	4.3%	36	4.8%	39	5.7%	63	5.9%	102	5.7%	320	7.0%
12	Protective Service	57	2.0%	13	1.7%	18	2.6%	26	2.4%	44	2.5%	93	2.0%
13	Sales	67	2.4%	9	1.2%	20	2.9%	34	3.2%	54	3.0%	187	4.1%
14	School Teacher	18	0.6%	6	0.8%	7	1.0%	16	1.5%	23	1.3%	82	1.8%
15	Service	72	2.5%	12	1.6%	27	3.9%	26	2.4%	53	3.0%	97	2.1%
16	Technical	63	2.2%	27	3.6%	14	2.0%	28	2.6%	42	2.4%	131	2.9%
17	Never Worked	8	0.3%	1	0.1%	3	0.4%	1	0.1%	4	0.2%	5	0.1%
18	Don't Know	344	12.1%	74	9.9%	63	9.1%	83	7.8%	146	8.2%	300	6.5%
	Other Plan	1277						1079	9.0%				

Missing Father's Occupation

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Appendix to Table 4

CODES for Japanese Q 33 (Occupation Expected at Age 30)
and Q 50 (Father's Occupation)

01. Worker in agricultural, forestry, or fishing industry

02. Owner of a restaurant or a retail store, self-employed manager of a company or a factory with less than or equal to five employees

03. Section chief, department chief, or executive director of a government agency or a company; member of the Diet; director of a railroad station; director of a postal office; etc.

04. Physician, pharmacist, judge, attorney, C.P.A., college professor, etc.

05. Engineer, school teacher, pilot, computer programmer, journalist, artist, photographer, interpreter, editor, athlete, etc.

06. Dietician, social worker, nurse, kindergarten teacher, designer, a stylist, etc.

07. Clerk (management), accountant or business person in a large enterprise (company or factory with more than or equal to 1,000 employees) or in a government agency

08. Clerk, accountant, or business person in a small or a medium-sized enterprise (company or factory with less than 1,000 employees)

09. Skilled worker or operative in a large enterprise (company or factor with more than or equal to 1,000 employees) or in a government agency

10. Skilled worker or operative in a small or medium-sized enterprise (company or factory with less than 1,000 employees)

11. Carpenter, plasterer, transportation engineer, driver

12. Employed retail sales person, agent of insurance company, "salesman," etc.

13. Barber, beautician, waiter, cook, air stewardess, etc.

14. Police man, member of SDT, janitor, guard, etc.

15. Full-time housewife (Other in Q 50)

16. Not working (other than housewife)

17. Does not apply (for Q 50)

Appendix to Table 4

CODES for U.S. Q 38 (Father's Occupation) and
Q 62 (Occupation Expected ag Age 30)

0. Do you live with father (stepfather or male guardian) Q 38 only
1. CLERICAL such as bank teller, bookkeeper, secretary, typist, mail carrier, ticket agent
2. CRAFTSMAN such as baker, automobile mechanic, machinist, painter, plumber, telephone installer, carpenter
3. FARMER, FARM MANAGER
4. HOMEMAKER OR HOUSEWIFE ONLY
5. LABORER such as construction worker, car washer, sanitary worker, farm laborer
6. MANAGER, ADMINISTRATOR such as sales manager, office manager, school administrator, buyer, restaurant manager, government official
7. MILITARY such as career officer, enlisted man or woman in the Armed Forces
8. OPERATIVE such as meat cutter, assembler, machine operator, welder, taxicab, bus, or truck driver
9. PROFESSIONAL such as accountant, artist, registered nurse, engineer, librarian, writer, social worker, actor, actress, athlete, politician, but not including school teacher
10. PROFESSIONAL such as clergyman, dentist, physician, lawyer, scientist, college teacher
11. PROPRIETOR OR OWNER such as owner of a small business, contractor, restaurant owner
12. PROTECTIVE SERVICE such as detective, police officer or guard, sheriff, fire fighter
13. SALES such as salesperson, advertising or insurance agent, real estate broker
14. SCHOOL TEACHER such as elementary or secondary
15. SERVICE such as barber, beautician, practical nurse, private household worker, janitor, waiter
16. TECHNICAL such as draftsman, medical or dental technician, computer programmer
17. Never worked (Q 62, not working)
18. Don't know (Q 38 only)

Third, reading down the columns, in the U.S. the main occupations of fathers of people going directly into the labor market, going to vocational school, or taking vocational courses at a junior college are identical: craftsmen, laborers, and operatives. The main occupations of the fathers of those planning to take academic courses in junior college and those planning to go to four-year colleges are also the same: craftsmen, and managers.

In Japan, categores 2 and 3 of "operatives" are the main occupations of the fathers of young people going directly into the labor force, or with small business managers-owners attending vocational school. There too, fathers of students planning to attend junior college or four-year college resemble each other and are mainly managers, professionals or clerical workers.

In both settings, the occupations of fathers of children going into the labor market or to vocational training are similar to each other, as are those whose children are going to (academic) two-year or four-year colleges.

Schools and School Experiences

Let us now consider the kinds of school experiences reported by students in each setting. We will look at school type (public or private), school program, self-reported grades and time students report having spent on homework.

a. School Type

We have already alluded to the function of private secondary schools in Japan and to the general low esteem in which many of them are held.

The difference in function between private schools in the U.S. as compared to that of such schools in Japan is illustrated so sharply by our data that it makes us distrust the data. We have a very small sample of private schools drawn from an extremely heterogeneous universe. Nonetheless, until better data are available, we will at least briefly look at ours.

(Table 5)

As is clear in table 5, in our data set students in Japan who plan to enter the labor force directly are more likely to have gone to private schools than to public schools. The trend is perfectly clear, from 48 percent of those entering the labor force down to 14 percent of those who plan to attend national universities. In this Japanese data, the percentage of students attending private schools is inversely related to educational aspirations. In the U.S., on the other hand, the percentage who attend private schools is directly related to educational aspiration. It rises from 4 percent of the students entering the labor force up to the 19 percent planning to attend four-year colleges. (The weighted percentages are also given in the table and are of the same magnitude and in the same order.)

b. School Program

Most secondary schools in the U.S. are comprehensive high schools, that is students in a given school may be in an academic, vocational, or a general program. The situation is somewhat different in Japan although there are comprehensive high schools there too. More often than in the U.S. a school offers either a vocational or an academic program. In table 6 we show what proportion of students choosing each of the postsecondary options report being in academic or vocational programs in Japan, and in the three high school programs in the U.S.

(Table 6)

Perhaps it is fairest to compare vocational students in the two settings since they may be the most closely analogous. In both cultures they are likely to go directly into the labor market or on for more vocational training, either in vocational schools or, in the U.S., in vocational courses at two-year colleges. However, in the U.S. about a fifth (20.8 percent) of the students planning to go to two-year colleges for academic courses come from the vocational track. It

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Table 5. Proportion of 1980 High School Seniors with Various Postsecondary Plans Attending Public and Private Secondary Schools in Japan and the U.S.

Postsecondary Plan	School Type	JAPAN			U.S.		
		n	UNWTD	WTD	n	UNWTD	WTD
Enter Labor Force	Public	1344	52.4%	48.6%	2724	95.6%	94.4%
	Private	1223	47.6%	51.4%	124	4.4%	5.6%
Vocational/Trade School	Public	368	56.2%	55.5%	694	93.2%	92.9%
	Private	287	43.8%	44.5%	51	6.8%	7.1%
Junior College	Public	396	61.9%	71.4%	1598	91.1%	92.1%
	Private	244	38.1%	28.6%	157	8.9%	7.9%
Junior College (Vocational)	Public	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	642	93.0%	92.7%
	Private	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	48	7.0%	7.3%
Junior College (Academic)	Public	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	956	89.8%	91.7%
	Private	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	109	10.2%	8.3%
College	Public	2565	81.3%	85.6%	3725	81.3%	84.0%
	Private	591	18.7%	14.4%	858	18.7%	16.0%
Private University	Public	1060	75.2%	78.9%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
	Private	349	24.8%	21.1%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
National University	Public	1505	86.1%	89.7%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
	Private	242	13.9%	10.3%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Other		160			1277		
Total	Public	4793	66.2%	70.6%	10661	88.9%	89.5%
	Private	2446	33.8%	29.4%	1334	11.1%	10.5%

Table 6. Proportion of 1980 High School Seniors with Various Postsecondary Plans in Academic or Vocational High School Programs in Japan and the U.S. (weighted & unweighted)

Postsecondary Plan	High School Program	JAPAN			U.S.		
		n	UNWTD	WTD	n	UNWTD	WTD
Enter Labor Market	Academic	791	30.8%	33.0%	370	13.3%	13.7%
	Vocational	1776	69.2%	67.0%	1132	40.6%	39.5%
	General				1284	46.1%	46.8%
Vocational/Trade School	Academic	427	65.2%	61.3%	140	19.1%	15.8%
	Vocational	228	34.8%	38.7%	307	41.9%	46.1%
	General				286	39.0%	38.0%
Junior College	Academic	554	86.6%	84.3%	611	35.3%	38.4%
	Vocational	86	13.4%	15.7%	423	24.5%	21.6%
	General				696	40.2%	39.9%
Junior College (Vocational)	Academic	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	186	27.6%	27.8%
	Vocational				204	30.2%	28.8%
	General				285	42.2%	43.5%
Junior College (Academic)	Academic	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	425	40.3%	45.2%
	Vocational				219	20.8%	17.1%
	General				411	39.0%	37.7%
College	Academic	2954	93.6%	96.4%	2895	63.9%	67.7%
	Vocational	202	6.4%	3.6%	460	10.2%	8.2%
	General				1177	26.0%	24.1%
Private University	Academic	1222	86.7%	91.1%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
	Vocational	187	13.3%	9.0%			
	General						
National University	Academic	1732	99.1%	99.6%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
	Vocational	15	0.9%	0.3%			
	General						
Other		160			1277		
Total	Academic	4844	66.9%	78.7%	4328	38.3%	38.2%
	Vocational	2395	33.1%	21.3%	2853	25.3%	25.0%
	General				4118	36.4%	36.8%
Missing School Program		0	0.0%		696	5.8%	

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

is surprising to us that a quarter (26.0 percent) of students planning to go to four-year colleges in the U.S. are in the general program in high school, usually considered not to provide adequate preparation for college entrance. In the U.S. about two thirds (65 percent) of the students planning to attend public two-year colleges come from non-academic high school tracks and a third (36 percent) of those aspiring to four-year colleges do so.

In Japan, virtually no students aspiring to national universities were in a vocational program in high school. About 13 percent of students planning to go to private two- or four-year colleges are from the vocational track. The private sector accommodates these students in Japan.

c. Grades in High School

High school students in both settings were asked about the grades they had received in high school. In the U.S., 51.2 percent of the students reported that their grades were in the top three categories (mostly A, about half A's and half B's, mostly B). The Japanese students were given a slightly different task. "Judging from all grades you took, how do you describe your academic achievement in high school. (In order to be comparable with American data, eight levels are distinguished. Select the one you think describes you best.)" To compare the two groups in this paper we combined students in categories 1 through 4 of the Japanese data (50.2 percent) so that we could work with half of each group of students.

(Table 7)

As may be seen in table 7, the proportion of students reporting grades in the top half of the distribution in the U.S. increases with the amount of post-secondary education aspired to.

Table 7. Proportion of 1980 High School Seniors with Various High School Plans Reporting Grades Above the Median in Japan and the U.S. (weighted and unweighted)

Postsecondary Plan	JAPAN			U.S.		
	n	UNWTD	WTD	n	UNWTD	WTD
Enter Labor Force	1232	49.6%	52.1%	943	33.5%	34.7%
Vocational/Trade School	259	40.6%	44.6%	311	42.0%	44.5%
Junior College	336	57.4%	58.8%	879	50.3%	55.6%
Junior College (Vocational)	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	303	44.0%	49.5%
Junior College (Academic)	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	576	54.4%	59.5%
College	1709	56.7%	56.0%	3214	70.3%	75.7%
Private University	663	49.5%	47.2%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
National University	1046	62.5%	61.3%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Total	3629	52.1%	55.0%	5886	51.6%	54.1%

Proportion of 1980 High School Seniors with Various High School Plans Reporting Grades Above the Median in Japan and the U.S. by Sex (weighted and unweighted)

Postsecondary Plan	Sex	JAPAN			U.S.		
		n	UNWTD	WTD	n	UNWTD	WTD
Enter Labor Force	Males	620	49.4%	48.9%	391	27.2%	26.0%
	Females	612	49.9%	54.6%	552	40.2%	44.4%
Vocational/Trade School	Males	108	39.6%	42.4%	99	32.4%	35.0%
	Females	151	41.4%	46.0%	212	48.9%	51.2%
Junior College	Males	21	61.8%	66.3%	299	42.1%	46.4%
	Females	315	57.2%	58.4%	580	55.9%	61.6%
Junior College (Vocational)	Males	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	104	34.8%	34.6%
	Females	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	199	51.0%	59.1%
Junior College (Academic)	Males	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	195	47.5%	53.9%
	Females	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	381	58.9%	63.2%
College	Males	1306	56.2%	55.5%	1336	65.6%	70.4%
	Females	402	58.6%	57.4%	1878	74.1%	80.2%
Private University	Males	488	47.1%	44.7%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
	Females	174	57.6%	53.7%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
National University	Males	818	63.5%	61.8%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
	Females	228	59.4%	59.9%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Total	Males	2113	52.6%	52.9%	2394	44.6%	46.0%
	Females	1515	52.1%	55.0%	3492	57.8%	61.7%

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Thus, in the U.S. the proportion of students reporting B's or better starts at 33 percent for those planning to enter the labor force, increases to about 42 percent for those planning vocational training, rises to 54 percent for those planning academic courses at junior colleges, and then goes up to 70 percent for those planning to attend four-year colleges. We note that in the U.S. students planning to take vocational courses in junior college report grades very close to students planning other vocational training.

The figures in Japan are distributed quite differently and suggest that further analysis of this variable would be warranted. However, in Japan quite similar proportions of students entering the labor force (49.6 percent) and of those planning to attend four-year private colleges (56.7 percent) report grades in the top half of the distribution. The differences between those aspiring to national as opposed to private universities is as we would have anticipated with 62.5 percent of the students in the national university category placing themselves in the top half of the distribution as compared to 49.5 percent of those who plan to attend private universities.

Since we know that Japanese upper secondary schools differ in quality (as do those in the U.S.) it may be that in Japan each level of aspiration is associated with a certain quality of secondary school. Half of the better students at poorer academic and vocational schools may plan to go directly into the labor force, and many of the 40 percent who plan to go to national universities but do not report being in the top half of the grade distribution may be in the very best academic schools

d. Time Spent on Homework

We have all read magazine reports of overworked Japanese secondary school students studying until all hours, missing the joys of adolescence. In this paper we discuss the other end of the spectrum. We look at the category of students in each country who spend virtually no time on homework. In the U.S. this means less than an hour a week, the response of 22.5 percent of the U.S. students. In Japan, it means "almost none" the response of 26.5 percent of students to "how many hours do you study per day?" So here are a group of students in each country not overly burdened (some might say not adequately burdened) with homework assignments.

(Table 8)

In table 8 we see that in the U.S., 36.5 percent of students planning to go directly into the labor force are in this low homework category, and in Japan, 51.2 percent of students who plan to enter the labor force are relatively free of the burden of homework in upper secondary school.

In both cultures the percentage of students in this lowest homework category decreases as educational aspirations increase. And reports of indolence persist even at the highest levels. Of those students planning to attend four-year colleges in the U.S., 11.2 percent do virtually no homework. This is counterbalanced by 13.1 percent in that group who report studying at home more than ten yours a week. If we look only at private colleges in Japan, virtually the same proportion of students as in the U.S. (10.8 percent in Japan) are in the lowest homework category, counterblanced by 15.7 percent in the highest category. (In Japan, this is indeed a strong counterblance. The top category is four or more hours per day.) At the very top of the Japanese university structure, only 2.7 percent of aspirants are in the lowest homework category, while a third are in the highest category, swotting away in confirmation of the usual American stereotype.

Table 8: Proportion of 1980 High School Seniors with Various Postsecondary Plans in Lowest and Highest Homework Categories in Japan and the U.S. (weighted and unweighted)

Proportion of 1980 High School Seniors with Various Postsecondary Plans in Lowest Homework Categories in Japan and the U.S. (weighted & unweighted)

Postsecondary Plan	JAPAN			U.S.		
Enter Labor Force	1311	51.2%	49.7%	1029	36.5%	37.5%
Vocational/Trade School	220	33.6%	29.7%	189	25.4%	28.1%
Junior College	82	13.1%	8.3%	363	20.7%	20.7%
Junior College (Vocational)	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	157	22.9%	24.9%
Junior College (Academic)	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	206	19.4%	18.0%
College	196	6.3%	5.5%	510	11.2%	11.3%
Private University	150	10.8%	10.2%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
National University	46	2.7%	2.7%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Total	1905	26.5%	21.6%	2574	22.5%	24.4%

Proportion of 1980 High School Seniors with Various Postsecondary Plans in Highest Homework Categories in Japan and the U.S. (weighted & unweighted)

Postsecondary Plan	JAPAN			U.S.		
Enter Labor Force	15	0.6%	0.6%	67	2.4%	2.4%
Vocational/Trade School	12	1.8%	2.1%	16	2.2%	1.5%
Junior College	50	8.0%	10.5%	82	4.7%	4.1%
Junior College (Vocational)	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	25	3.6%	4.2%
Junior College (Academic)	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	57	5.4%	4.0%
College	798	25.6%	26.2%	597	13.1%	11.3%
Private University	218	15.7%	7.0%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
National University	580	33.5%	31.8%	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Total	887	12.4%	14.9%	808	7.1%	6.4%

Table 9: Proposed Fields of Postsecondary Study and Postsecondary Plan for 1980 High School Seniors in Japan and the U.S. (unweighted)

JAPAN

PLANNED MAJOR FIELD OF STUDY

	JR. COLLEGE		TRADE SCHOOL		PRIVATE UNIVERSITY		NATIONAL UNIVERSITY	
LIB.ARTS	176	27.5%	27	4.1%	262	18.6%	208	11.9%
LAW/POL.SCI.	3	0.5%	1	0.2%	144	10.2%	180	10.3%
ECON./COMM.	32	5.0%	57	8.7%	385	27.3%	155	8.9%
SOC.SCI.	5	0.8%	7	1.1%	53	3.8%	36	2.1%
NAT.SCI./MATH	3	0.5%	12	1.8%	33	2.3%	151	8.6%
ENG./ARCH.	22	3.4%	143	21.8%	265	18.8%	385	22.0%
AGRICULTURE	6	0.9%	4	0.6%	21	1.5%	63	3.6%
MED. SCI.	26	4.1%	89	13.6%	23	1.6%	96	5.5%
DENTAL SCI.	6	0.9%	39	6.0%	13	0.9%	20	1.1%
PHARMACOLOGY	2	0.3%	2	0.3%	27	1.9%	41	2.3%
HOME EC.	161	25.2%	59	9.0%	14	1.0%	10	0.6%
EDUCATION	143	22.3%	41	6.3%	95	6.7%	322	18.4%
ART/MUSIC	32	5.0%	104	15.9%	52	3.7%	35	2.0%
DON'T KNOW	17	2.7%	46	7.0%	11	0.8%	29	1.7%
Missing Proposed Field of Study			2845					

US

PLANNED VOCATIONAL FIELD OF STUDY

	TRADE SCHOOL		JR. COLLEGE (Vocational)		JR. COLLEGE (Academic)		COLLEGE	
AGRICULTURE	11	1.5%	7	1.0%	8	0.8%	9	3.1%
AUTO MECH	45	6.0%	17	2.5%	7	0.7%	10	3.5%
COMM. ARTS	18	2.4%	15	2.2%	8	0.8%	26	9.0%
COMPUTERS	35	4.7%	24	3.5%	16	1.5%	41	14.2%
CONSTRUCTION	25	3.4%	21	3.0%	9	0.8%	13	4.5%
COSMET/BARBER	37	5.0%	20	2.9%	7	0.7%	10	3.5%
DRAFTING	18	2.4%	14	2.0%	6	0.6%	16	5.6%
ELECTRONICS	36	4.8%	13	1.9%	7	0.7%	12	4.2%
HOME EC.	5	0.7%	4	0.6%	6	0.6%	6	2.1%
MACHINE SHOP	6	0.8%	1	0.1%	1	0.1%	5	1.7%
MED/DEN ASST.	18	2.4%	14	2.0%	8	0.8%	16	5.6%
PRACT.NURSE	18	2.4%	10	1.4%	6	0.6%	15	5.2%
FOOD	2	0.3%	3	0.4%	1	0.1%	4	1.4%
SALES	25	3.4%	8	1.2%	4	0.4%	20	6.9%
OFFICE SKILLS	86	11.5%	34	4.9%	25	2.3%	21	7.3%
WELDING	12	1.6%	6	0.9%	4	0.4%	4	1.4%
OTHER	61	8.2%	34	4.9%	29	2.7%	60	20.8%
Missing Vocational Field of Study			1644		Legitimate Skip		7495	

ANTICIPATED COLLEGE FIELD OF STUDY

AGRICULTURE	29	2.7%	12	1.7%	14	1.9%	64	1.6%
ARCHITECTURE	20	1.9%	14	2.0%	0	0.0%	94	2.3%
ART	37	3.5%	33	4.8%	22	3.0%	156	3.9%
BIOLOGICAL SCI	18	1.7%	8	1.2%	6	0.8%	117	2.9%
BUSINESS	214	20.1%	105	15.2%	103	13.8%	833	20.8%
COMMUNICATIONS	23	2.2%	14	2.0%	8	1.1%	155	3.9%
COMPUTER	39	3.7%	47	6.8%	18	2.4%	190	4.7%
EDUCATION	56	5.3%	18	2.6%	14	1.9%	248	6.2%
ENGINEERING	53	5.0%	43	6.2%	21	2.8%	418	10.4%
ENGLISH	19	1.8%	10	1.4%	2	0.3%	84	2.1%
ETHNIC STUDIES	0	0.0%	1	0.1%	1	0.1%	2	.0%
FOR. LANG.	6	0.6%	3	0.4%	3	0.4%	28	0.7%
HEALTH OCC.	56	5.3%	39	5.7%	21	2.8%	128	3.2%
HEALTH SCI.	50	4.7%	24	3.5%	16	2.1%	192	4.8%
HOME EC.	18	1.7%	10	1.4%	6	0.8%	51	1.3%
INTERDIS.	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	6	0.1%
MATH	6	0.6%	2	0.3%	6	0.8%	46	1.1%
MUSIC	14	1.3%	5	0.7%	4	0.5%	90	2.2%
RELIG./PHILOS.	4	0.4%	2	0.3%	0	0.0%	21	0.5%
PHYSICAL SCI.	8	0.8%	4	0.6%	2	0.3%	97	2.4%
PRE-PROF.	37	3.5%	10	1.4%	2	0.3%	425	10.6%
PSYCHOLOGY	26	2.4%	6	0.9%	1	0.1%	153	3.8%
SOCIAL SCI.	48	4.5%	12	1.7%	4	0.5%	217	5.4%
VO/TECH	33	3.1%	65	9.4%	82	11.0%	46	1.1%
OTHER	46	4.3%	31	4.5%	29	3.9%	145	3.6%
Missing Field of Study in College			2285		Legitimate Skip		1632	

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Appendix to Table 9

CODES for Japanese Field of Study in Vocational School, Junior College or Four-Year College

01. Literature, history, philosophy
02. Law, political science
03. Economics, commercial science
04. Sociology
05. Natural sciences (physical sciences and biology) or mathematics
06. Engineering or architecture
07. Agricultural science
08. Medical science
09. Dental science
10. Pharmacology
11. Home economics
12. Education
13. Art or music
14. Don't know yet

Appendix to Table 9

CODES for U.S. Field of Study in Vocational School

01. Agriculture, including horticulture
02. Auto mechanics
03. Commercial arts
04. Computer programming or computer operations

    Construction trades:

05. Carpentry, cabinet making, or millwork
06. Electrical
07. Masonry
08. Plumbing
09. Cosmetology, hairdressing, or barbering
10. Drafting
11. Electronics
12. Home economics, including dietetics and child care
13. Machine shop
14. Medical or dental assisting
15. Practical nursing
16. Quantity food occupations
17. Sales or merchandising
18. Secretarial, stenographic, typing, or other office work
19. Welding
20. Other

CODES for U.S. Field of Study in Junior College or Four-Year College

01. Agriculture (for example, agricultural economics, agronomy, forestry, and soils
02. Architecture
03. Art (for example, art appreciation, design, drawing, photography, graphics, and sculpting)
04. Biological sciences (for example, botany, ecology, and zoology)
05. Business (for example, accounting, business administration, industrial management, marketing, and finance)
06. Communications (for example, journalism, radio, and television)
07. Computer and information sciences (for example, systems analysis)
08. Education (for example, secondary education, elementary education, and physical education)
09. Engineering (for example, chemical engineering, civil engineering, electrical engineering, and mechanical engineering)
10. English (for example, creative writing, linguistics, literature, and speech and drama)
11. Ethnic studies (for example, Black studies and Mexican-American studies)
12. Foreign languages (for example, French, German, Italian, Latin, and Spanish)
13. Health occupations (for example, practical nursing, medical technology, and x-ray technology)
14. Health sciences (for example, registered nusring, optometry, and pharamacy)
15. Home economics (for example, dietetics, family and child development, and textiles and clothing)
16. Interdisciplinary studies
17. Mathematics (for example, calculus and statistics)
18. Music (for example, music appreciation and composition)
19. Philosophy or religion (for example, ethics, logic, and theology)
20. Physical science (for example, astronomy, biochemistry, chemistry, geology, and physics)
21. Preprofessional (for example, prelaw, predentistry, and premedicine)
22. Psychology
23. Social sciences (for example, anthropology, economics, government, history, political science, social work, sociology, and urban affairs)
24. Vocational or technical (for example, automobile repair, carpentry, computer programming, drafting, plumbing, stenography, and television repair)
25. Other (WRITE IN)

Postsecondary Plans and Occupational Aspirations

We have looked at variables which are prior to postsecondary choices. Next let us turn to plans for the future. What do strudents planning for each level of post-secondary education plan to major in? What kind of work do high school seniors expect to be doing at age thirty?

a. Postsecondary Majors

In table 9 we show the major selected by students in each postsecondary school type.

(Table 9 and Appendices)

In the U.S., the overwhelmingly most popular major is business (e.g., accounting, business administration, industrial management, marketing and finance). No matter what kind of postsecondary education is anticipated, that is always the most popular choice (in the guise of office skills at trade school and vocational junior colleges). At four-year colleges, engineering and pre-professional courses are the next most popular anticipated majors. In trade schools--after office skills--the popular majors are auto mechanics, cosmetology and barbering, electronics and computers.

In Japan, engineering and architecture is the most popular university choice with economics and commercial science (or business) second. In trade schools the most popular choices are the same, with the addition of home economics.

b. Occupational Expectations

One way of understanding the functions of various kinds of postsecondary educational institutions is by looking at what students expect to learn there, or the kinds of occupations they expect to have after their education is finished.

What do seniors who plan for these postsecondary options imagine they will be doing at age thirty? We will make comments about those occupations chosen by more than 10 % of young persons in an education category. Once again we

have not tried to combine occupation codes and urge reference to the more complete occupational descriptions appended to table 11.

(Tables 10 and 11 and appendices)

First, let us look at those students who plan to enter the labor market directly after completing secondary school. In Japan, the young men with this plan expect to be in the minor professions (engineer, school teacher, pilot, computer programmer, journalist, artist, interpreter, editor, athlete, etc.) 22.1 percent or skilled workers in small (13.0 percent) or large (10.6 percent) establishments. An additional 10 percent (10.3 percent) expect to have clerical positions in large enterprises when they are thirty years old. Of the young men leaving school in the U.S., a quarter (23.6 percent) expect to be craftsmen at age thirty and 13.8 percent plan to be in the minor professions (engineers, artists, social workers, etc.).

Most Japanese women who go from secondary school into the labor force expect to be full-time homemakers at age thirty (60.2 percent), but 10.2 percent expect to be working as clerks in small companies. Their U.S. counterparts also expect to be in clerical jobs (29.6 percent) or lower professional jobs (16.9 percent). And 8.0 percent of them expect to be full-time homemakers. Although we see that Japanese women with various educational aspirations plan to be full-time homemakers at thirty, this is the highest percentage of American women who report such plans.

Next, let us look at the vocational expectations of students who enter postsecondary vocational training in both settings. In Japan, of the young men with this plan, about 34.1 percent expect to be in the previously mentioned category of minor professions, and another 11.2 percent plan to be in a second category (nurses, social worker, kindergarten teacher, nutritionist, dietitian,

Table 10: Occupational Aspirations at Age 30 for 1980 Male High School Seniors in Japan and the U.S. (unweighted)

JAPAN

		Enter Labor Force		Trade School		Jr. College		College		Private University		National University	
1	Farm/Fish/Forest	14	1.1%	4	1.4%	3	8.8%	33	1.4%	10	1.7%	15	1.1%
2	Owner/Manager 1	91	7.1%	22	8.0%	2	5.9%	71	3.0%	53	4.9%	18	1.4%
3	Manager 2	90	7.0%	7	2.5%	1	2.9%	156	6.5%	69	6.4%	87	6.6%
4	Professional 1	5	0.4%	7	2.5%	1	2.9%	266	11.1%	74	6.9%	192	14.5%
5	Professional 2	285	22.1%	94	34.1%	13	38.2%	889	37.2%	331	30.9%	558	42.3%
6	Professional 3	8	0.6%	31	11.2%	2	5.9%	24	1.0%	11	1.0%	13	1.0%
7	Clerical 1	133	10.3%	15	5.4%	1	2.9%	301	12.6%	138	12.9%	163	12.3%
8	Clerical 2	73	5.7%	16	5.8%	1	2.9%	235	9.8%	147	13.7%	88	6.7%
9	Skill/Operative 1	137	10.6%	8	2.9%	3	8.8%	52	2.2%	19	1.8%	33	2.5%
10	Skill/Operative 2	168	13.1%	18	6.5%	2	5.9%	81	3.4%	50	4.7%	31	2.3%
11	Skill/Operative 3	54	4.2%	19	6.9%	3	8.8%	28	1.2%	20	1.9%	8	0.6%
12	Sales	32	2.5%	2	0.7%	0	0.0%	22	0.9%	16	1.5%	6	0.5%
13	Service	64	5.0%	16	5.8%	1	2.9%	7	0.3%	6	0.6%	1	0.1%
14	Police/SDF/Prot.	44	3.4%	2	0.7%	0	0.0%	29	1.2%	17	1.6%	12	0.9%
15	Homemaker	1	0.1%	0	0.0%	1	2.9%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
16	Not Working	7	0.5%	4	1.4%	0	0.0%	47	2.0%	17	1.6%	30	2.3%
	Missing	81	6.3%	11	4.0%	0	0.0%	150	6.3%	85	7.9%	65	4.9%

US

Code	Occupational Category	Enter Labor Force		Trade School		Jr. College Total		Jr. College Vocational		Jr. College Academic		College	
1	Clerical	32	2.2%	9	2.9%	5	0.7%	2	0.7%	3	0.7%	18	0.9%
2	Crafts	343	23.6%	95	30.7%	67	9.4%	46	15.3%	21	5.1%	45	2.2%
3	Farm	67	4.6%	17	5.5%	18	2.5%	9	3.0%	9	2.2%	28	1.4%
4	Homemaker	4	0.3%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	1	.0%
5	Laborer	90	6.2%	6	1.9%	18	2.5%	9	3.0%	9	2.2%	12	0.6%
6	Management	93	6.4%	14	4.5%	53	7.4%	18	6.0%	35	8.5%	183	9.0%
7	Military	39	2.7%	2	0.6%	9	1.3%	6	2.0%	3	0.7%	28	1.4%
8	Operative	116	8.0%	20	6.5%	20	2.8%	13	4.3%	7	1.7%	25	1.2%
9	Professional 1	185	12.7%	34	11.0%	184	25.8%	59	19.7%	125	30.2%	755	36.9%
10	Professional 2	50	3.4%	4	1.3%	78	10.9%	16	5.3%	62	15.0%	504	24.7%
11	Proprietor/Owner	85	5.8%	14	4.5%	37	5.2%	16	5.3%	21	5.1%	61	3.0%
12	Protective Service	44	3.0%	6	1.9%	35	4.9%	8	2.7%	27	6.5%	30	1.5%
13	Sales	25	1.7%	1	0.3%	18	2.5%	5	1.7%	13	3.1%	38	1.9%
14	School Teacher	6	0.4%	2	0.6%	17	2.4%	5	1.7%	12	2.9%	47	2.3%
15	Service	13	0.9%	2	0.6%	4	0.6%	1	0.3%	3	0.7%	4	0.2%
16	Technical	113	7.8%	67	21.7%	122	17.1%	74	24.7%	48	11.6%	195	9.5%
17	Not Working	31	2.1%	5	1.6%	1	0.1%	1	0.3%	0	0.0%	8	0.4%
	Missing	118	8.1%	11	3.6%	28	3.9%	12	4.0%	16	3.9%	62	3.0%

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Table 11: Occupational Aspirations at Age 30 for 1980 Female High School Seniors in Japan and the U.S. (unweighted)

JAPAN

		Enter Labor Force		Trade School		Jr. College		College		Private University		National University	
1	Farm/Fish/Forest	4	0.3%	2	0.5%	2	0.3%	4	0.5%	0	0.0%	4	0.9%
2	Owner/Manager 1	30	2.3%	10	2.6%	10	1.7%	15	2.0%	10	3.0%	5	1.2%
3	Manager 2	2	0.2%	1	0.3%	1	0.2%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
4	Professional 1	2	0.2%	6	1.6%	1	0.2%	54	7.1%	21	6.3%	33	7.7%
5	Professional 2	22	1.7%	28	7.4%	58	9.6%	294	38.6%	102	30.4%	192	45.1%
6	Professional 3	44	3.4%	115	30.3%	124	20.5%	57	7.5%	33	9.8%	24	5.6%
7	Clerical 1	82	6.4%	9	2.4%	22	3.6%	35	4.6%	16	4.8%	19	4.5%
8	Clerical 2	130	10.2%	14	3.7%	26	4.3%	19	2.5%	10	3.0%	9	2.1%
9	Skill/Operative 1	9	0.7%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	2	0.3%	0	0.0%	2	0.5%
10	Skill/Operative 2	29	2.3%	3	0.8%	4	0.7%	1	0.1%	1	0.3%	0	0.0%
11	Skill/Operative 3	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
12	Sales	62	4.8%	4	1.1%	8	1.3%	1	0.1%	1	0.3%	0	0.0%
13	Service	23	1.8%	33	8.7%	6	1.0%	2	0.3%	1	0.3%	1	0.2%
14	Police/SDF/Prot.	4	0.3%	0	0.0%	3	0.5%	2	0.3%	1	0.3%	1	0.2%
15	Homemaker	770	60.2%	141	37.2%	307	50.7%	222	29.1%	121	36.0%	101	23.7%
16	Not Working	10	0.8%	2	0.5%	8	1.3%	12	1.6%	5	1.5%	7	1.6%
	Missing	57	4.5%	11	2.9%	26	4.3%	42	5.5%	14	4.2%	28	6.6%

US

Code	Occupational Category	Enter Labor Force		Trade School		Jr. College Total		Jr. College Vocational		Jr. College Academic		College	
1	Clerical	413	29.6%	143	32.8%	193	18.5%	83	21.3%	110	16.9%	153	6.0%
2	Crafts	17	1.2%	5	1.1%	6	0.6%	5	1.3%	1	0.2%	6	0.2%
3	Farm	11	0.8%	1	0.2%	2	0.2%	1	0.3%	1	0.2%	8	0.3%
4	Homemaker	111	8.0%	11	2.5%	31	3.0%	9	2.3%	22	3.4%	30	1.2%
5	Laborer	4	0.3%	2	0.5%	3	0.3%	1	0.3%	2	0.3%	1	.0%
6	Management	64	4.6%	26	6.0%	58	5.6%	16	4.1%	42	6.5%	196	7.7%
7	Military	18	1.3%	2	0.5%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	7	0.3%
8	Operative	29	2.1%	3	0.7%	10	1.0%	4	1.0%	6	0.9%	15	0.6%
9	Professional 1	235	16.9%	78	17.9%	323	31.0%	107	27.4%	216	33.2%	985	38.8%
10	Professional 2	60	4.3%	11	2.5%	101	9.7%	25	6.4%	76	11.7%	587	23.1%
11	Proprietor/Owner	31	2.2%	21	4.8%	22	2.1%	6	1.5%	16	2.5%	43	1.7%
12	Protective Service	18	1.3%	2	0.5%	14	1.3%	6	1.5%	8	1.2%	17	0.7%
13	Sales	33	2.4%	7	1.6%	21	2.0%	10	2.6%	11	1.7%	36	1.4%
14	School Teacher	49	3.5%	5	1.1%	59	5.7%	13	3.3%	46	7.1%	185	7.3%
15	Service	129	9.3%	58	13.3%	61	5.9%	30	7.7%	31	4.8%	51	2.0%
16	Technical	70	5.0%	42	9.6%	100	9.6%	59	15.1%	41	6.3%	149	5.9%
17	Not Working	29	2.1%	5	1.1%	3	0.3%	1	0.3%	2	0.3%	4	0.2%
	Missing	73	5.2%	14	3.2%	34	3.3%	14	3.6%	20	3.1%	66	2.6%

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Appendix to Tables 10 and 11

CODES for Japanese Q 33 (Occupation Expected at Age 30)
and Q 50 (Father's Occupation)

01. Worker in agricultural, forestry, or fishing industry
02. Owner of a restaurant or a retail store, self-employed manager of a company or a factory with less than or equal to five employees
03. Section chief, department chief, or executive director of a government agency or a company; member of the Diet; director of a railroad station; director of a postal office; etc.
04. Physician, pharmacist, judge, attorney, C.P.A., college professor, etc.
05. Engineer, school teacher, pilot, computer programmer, journalist, artist, photographer, interpreter, editor, athlete, etc.
06. Dietician, social worker, nurse, kindergarten teacher, designer, a stylist, etc.
07. Clerk (management), accountant or business person in a large enterprise (company or factory with more than or equal to 1,000 employees) or in a government agency
08. Clerk, accountant, or business person in a small or a medium-sized enterprise (company or factory with less than 1,000 employees)
09. Skilled worker or operative in a large enterprise (company or factor with more than or equal to 1,000 employees) or in a government agency
10. Skilled worker or operative in a small or medium-sized enterprise (company or factory with less than 1,000 employees)
11. Carpenter, plasterer, transportation engineer, driver
12. Employed retail sales person, agent of insurance company, "salesman," etc.
13. Barber, beautician, waiter, cook, air stewardess, etc.
14. Police man, member of SDT, janitor, guard, etc.
15. Full-time housewife (Other in Q 50)
16. Not working (other than housewife)
17. Does not apply (for Q 50)

Appendix to Tables 10 and 11

CODES for U.S. Q 38 (Father's Occupation) and
Q 62 (Occupation Expected ag Age 30)

0. Do you live with father (stepfather or male guardian) Q 38 only
1. CLERICAL such as bank teller, bookkeeper, secretary, typist, mail carrier, ticket agent
2. CRAFTSMAN such as baker, automobile mechanic, machinist, painter, plumber, telephone installer, carpenter
3. FARMER, FARM MANAGER
4. HOMEMAKER OR HOUSEWIFE ONLY
5. LABORER such as construction worker, car washer, sanitary worker, farm laborer
6. MANAGER, ADMINISTRATOR such as sales manager, office manager, school administrator, buyer, restaurant manager, government official
7. MILITARY such as career officer, enlisted man or woman in the Armed Forces
8. OPERATIVE such as meat cutter, assembler, machine operator, welder, taxicab, bus, or truck driver
9. PROFESSIONAL such as accountant, artist, registered nurse, engineer, librarian, writer, social worker, actor, actress, athlete, politician, but not including school teacher
10. PROFESSIONAL such as clergyman, dentist, physician, lawyer, scientist, college teacher
11. PROPRIETOR OR OWNER such as owner of a small business, contractor, restaurant owner
12. PROTECTIVE SERVICE such as detective, police officer or guard, sheriff, fire fighter
13. SALES such as salesperson, advertising or insurance agent, real estate broker
14. SCHOOL TEACHER such as elementary or secondary
15. SERVICE such as barber, beautician, practical nurse, private household worker, janitor, waiter
16. TECHNICAL such as draftsman, medical or dental technician, computer programmer
17. Never worked (Q 62, not working)
18. Don't know (Q 38 only)

stylist). This second category was also selected by 30.3 percent of the young women planning to attend vocational schools. Among Japanese women planning to attend vocational schools, 37.2 percent expected to be full-time homemakers at age thirty.

In the U.S., the young men planning to attend vocational schools expected to become craftsmen (30.7 percent) or technical workers (draftsmen, medical technicians, computer programmers). Almost exactly a third of the young women (32.8) in the U.S. planning to go to vocational schools expected to enter clerical jobs (secretary, bookkeeper), 17.9 percent the minor professions and 13.3 percent expected to become service workers (e.g., practical nurses, beauticians).

Although occupations are grouped differently, young persons are being trained for many of the same jobs at vocational schools in both settings.

In Japan, young women planning to enter junior colleges are training for the minor professions too, but those in the category of social worker, nurse, kindergarten teacher, etc. Of those with junior college plans, 50.7 percent plan to be full-time homemakers at age thirty. Since these are "schools for brides" we might have expected a higher percentage to make this choice.

In the U.S., some persons plan to attend two-year colleges specifically for vocational training. Of young men with such plans, 15.3 percent expect to be craftsmen at age 30, 19.7 percent in the minor professions, and 24.7 percent in technical jobs. Young American women are also training for the minor professions (27.6 percent) and technical jobs (15.1 percent) in two-year colleges as well as for clerical jobs (21.3 percent).

American young people going to two-year colleges with academic plans, also expect to be in the minor professions at age thirty (30.2 percent of the males and 33.2 percent of the females). Males plan to have technical jobs (11.6 percent) and the females clerical ones (16.9 percent). It is also clear

that in this group of students attending two-year colleges, a subset plan to go to complete four-year college and professional school. Fifteen percent of the males and 12 percent of the females plan to enter the major professions. Transfer from junior to senior college is reported to be extremely difficult in Japan.

Finally, to complete the picture, in Japan about equal proportions of young males and females planning to attend private colleges plan to be in the minor professions at age thirty (30.9 percent of the males and 30.4 percent of the females). Among those planning to go to national universities, the proportion of males and females expecting to be in these professions is again very close (42.3 percent of the males and 45.1 percent of the females). About 14 percent (14.5 percent) of the boys expect to be in the major professions, and 12.3 percent plan to be clerks in large enterprises. (And 23.7 percent of the females planning to attend national universities, and 36.0 percent of those who plan to attend private colleges expect to be homemakers at age thirty.)

In the U.S. virtually equal proportions of the males and females who plan to attend four-year colleges (36.9 percent of the males and 38.8 percent of the females) expect to be in the minor professions at age thirty, and another 24.7 percent of the males and 23.1 percent of the females expect to be in the major professions.

Let us briefly consider the proportion of young women in Japan at each aspiration level who expect not to be in the labor force at age thirty. Although what may seem to us to be high proportions of young women do not expect to be in the labor force at age thirty, there are in each category a substantial proportion who do plan to be working at that time. It would be interesting to know if this reflects the current labor market situation of women or if it represents an increasing trend to labor market participation.

Very Important Aspects of Life

Students were presented a list of topics such as having a happy family life, making lots of money, being successful at work, etc., and were asked "how important is each of the following to you in your life, very important, somewhat important or not important?" (See complete list of items appended to tables 12 and 13.) We planned from responses to these items to derive a fuller notion of what students hoped would be facilitated or at least not prevented by their future plans.

There is such a welter of information that we can only point out a few aspects of student responses. We will concentrate on those items which were rated as "very important" most often by students with each postsecondary plan.

(Tables 12 and 13 and appendices)

Let us start with young people who intend to enter the labor market (see table 12). For Japanese males, "strong friendships" are most often chosen as being very important (94 percent). The second choice of these young men "being successful at work" (91 percent) may suit our preconceived notions, but their third ranking choice, "a happy family life" may surprise us. Japanese females entering the labor force also value "strong friendships" (94 percent) and a "happy family life" (88 percent). For them "being successful at work" and "finding steady work" are about equally chosen (74 percent) as third.

For American young people in this category, about the same proportion (85 percent) choose "being successful at work" and "finding steady work," the latter perhaps reflecting some real concerns about the job market here. American males choose "strong friendships" next (74 percent) and females place "a happy family life" next (83 percent).

able 12:
Proportion of 1980 High School Senior Males with Various Postsecondary Plans Who Consider Aspects of Life Very Important in Japan and the U.S. (weighted & unweighted)

	JAPAN																				
	Enter Labor Force			Trade School			Jr. College			Total College			Private University			National University			Total		
Life Aspect	n	UNWTD	WTD	n	UNWTD	WTD	n	UNWTD	WTD	n	UNWTD	WTD	n	UNWTD	WTD	n	UNWTD	WTD	n	UNWTD	WTD
Success in Work	1171	91	90.9	257	93.1	94	33	97.1	92.8	2098	87.7	87.2	968	90.4	91.2	1130	85.6	84.9	3678	89.0	88.2
Marriage & Happy Family Life	1119	87	87	219	79.4	79.1	29	85.3	79	1819	76.1	75.9	858	79.4	[illegible] 80.3	969	73.4	73.3	3288	79.5	78.4
Lots of Money	587	39.4	41.5	100	36.2	33.4	10	29.4	22.1	745	31.2	29.7	382	35.7	36.7	363	27.5	26.9	1420	34.4	33.1
Strong Friendships	1207	93.8	93.7	249	90.2	89.2	33	97.1	97.8	2158	90.3	89.9	982	91.7	91.8	1176	89.1	88.6	3752	91.8	90.5
Finding Steady Work	1027	79.8	80.8	205	74.3	73.3	26	76.5	72.4	1456	68.9	69.9	705	65.8	66.9	751	56.9	57	2791	67.7	65.6
Child - Better Opportunity	670	52.1	51.4	133	48.2	48.7	19	55.9	46.9	988	37.6	35.5	435	40.6	38.6	665	35.2	33.8	1782	41.2	39.9
Having Children	771	59.9	59.7	142	51.5	52.2	22	64.7	63.5	1254	52.4	52.4	682	56.2	56.7	652	49.4	50	2253	54.6	53.9
Living Close to Parents/Family	248	19.3	20.3	44	15.9	16.9	5	14.7	16	264	11.0	10.8	131	12.2	11.8	133	10.1	9.1	581	14.1	12.9
Having Leisure Time	896	69.6	70.8	187	67.8	69.3	25	73.5	75.2	1749	73.1	73.4	887	75.4	75.6	942	71.6	72.2	2950	73.5	72.4

	U.S.																				
	Enter Labor Force			Trade School			Total Jr. College			Jr. College (Voca.)			Jr. College (Acad.)			College			Total		
Life Aspect	n	UNWTD	WTD	n	UNWTD	WTD	n	UNWTD	WTD	n	UNWTD	WTD	n	UNWTD	WTD	n	UNWTD	WTD	n	UNWTD	WTD
Success in Work	1172	85.6	87.2	256	86.5	83.8	630	91.3	91.6	365	92.7	91.2	385	90.4	91.9	1859	92.7	91.4	4624	88.9	88.6
Marriage & Happy Family Life	1012	74.2	73.5	288	78.8	75.3	532	77.2	80.8	222	77.6	79.6	310	76.9	80.2	1619	80.9	81.4	3967	78.5	76.7
Lots of Money	661	48.6	47.5	110	40.3	42.3	270	39.2	36.1	114	39.9	35.2	156	38.7	36.7	778	38.8	35.9	2164	41.8	40.1
Strong Friendships	1012	74.5	79.3	212	72.4	75.2	541	78.6	82.8	221	77.5	81.6	320	79.4	82.3	1629	81.2	84.3	3993	79.2	81.1
Finding Steady Work	1151	85.1	85.9	266	83.7	86.2	583	85.6	87.1	266	87.2	87.8	337	84.5	86.7	1712	85.7	85.1	4358	86.6	86.9
Child - Better Opportunity	982	72.6	67.5	288	71.5	66.3	512	74.9	71.8	221	77.5	72.8	291	72.9	70.6	1635	72.8	66.3	3733	72.6	67.1
Having Children	460	36.1	33.2	88	30.1	31.9	227	33.8	36.6	99	34.9	37.6	128	31.8	32.7	730	36.6	35.5	1759	36.2	33.7
Living Close to Parents/Family	200	14.8	11.5	38	10.3	11	107	15.6	14.6	44	15.4	13.7	63	15.7	15.2	265	12.3	11.1	719	14.8	12.4
Having Leisure Time	107	63.3	67.9	189	64.5	73.2	481	69.9	68.6	197	69.1	68.8	284	70.5	68.5	1459	72.9	75.9	3555	68.8	71.8

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Table 13: Proportion of 1980 High School Senior Females with Various Postsecondary Plans Who Consider Aspects of Life Very Important in Japan and the U.S. (weighted & unweighted)

	JAPAN																				
	Enter Labor Force			Trade School			Jr. College			Total College			Private University			National University			Total		
Life Aspect	n	UNWTD	WTD	n	UNWTD	WTD	n	UNWTD	WTD	n	UNWTD	WTD	n	UNWTD	WTD	n	UNWTD	WTD	n	UNWTD	WTD
Success in Work	948	76.1	73	322	85	85.6	650	75.6	73.4	617	81.0	81.6	257	76.5	75.7	360	84.5	85.7	2612	77.7	77.3
Marriage & Happy Family Life	1125	87.9	87.6	381	79.6	78.6	501	82.7	83.3	565	74.1	73.1	264	78.6	78.9	301	70.1	69.2	2554	82.1	80.9
Lots of Money	232	18.1	19.6	74	19.5	18.7	118	19.5	22.5	150	19.7	22.2	86	23.8	27.7	78	16.4	18.4	597	19.2	21.1
Strong Friendships	1284	96.1	94	346	91.3	92.7	585	96.5	96.9	711	93.3	93.5	317	94.4	93.7	394	92.5	93.4	2925	94.8	94.1
Finding Steady Work	956	76.7	72.6	271	71.5	66.7	430	71	69.5	487	63.9	62.1	218	64.9	62	269	63.2	62.3	2197	70.6	67.8
Child - Better Opportunity	626	48.8	47.5	154	40.6	39.8	286	47.2	46.8	249	32.7	30.1	122	36.3	34.2	127	29.8	27.2	1353	43.5	40.8
Having Children	739	57.7	56.6	207	54.6	52.5	323	53.3	56.7	371	48.7	45.2	171	50.9	47.2	200	47	43.8	1688	54.2	51.4
Living Close to Parents/Family	136	10.6	11.2	33	8.7	7.6	67	11.1	11.3	79	10.4	11.9	39	11.6	14.6	40	9.4	10	322	10.3	10.9
Having Leisure Time	698	53.9	50.5	225	59.4	59.8	377	62.2	66.2	562	71.1	72.1	251	76.7	76.4	291	68.1	69.1	1882	68.5	66.5

	U.S.																				
	Enter Labor Force			Trade School			Total Jr. College			Jr. College (Voca.)			Jr. College (Acad.)			College			Total		
Life Aspect	n	UNWTD	WTD	n	UNWTD	WTD	n	UNWTD	WTD	n	UNWTD	WTD	n	UNWTD	WTD	n	UNWTD	WTD	n	UNWTD	WTD
Success in Work	1147	86.7	83.6	391	91.8	90.1	935	90.9	89.6	348	90.9	89	587	90.9	89.6	2329	92.9	91.6	5321	89.2	87.5
Marriage & Happy Family Life	1133	83.6	84	361	84.9	85.1	883	85.8	87.5	332	86.2	89.7	551	85.6	86.1	2016	80.3	79.7	4916	82.6	83.1
Lots of Money	411	30.5	25.2	113	26.6	23.5	263	23.6	22.3	82	21.6	21.4	161	25	23	682	24.1	19.7	1540	26.2	22.3
Strong Friendships	966	78.1	78.2	307	73.2	78.9	789	76.6	82.6	282	73.4	79	507	78.5	84.9	1988	79.6	85.6	4665	79.2	81.5
Finding Steady Work	1166	85.7	87.4	378	87.9	83.9	888	85.7	86.4	330	86.6	86.3	558	85.1	86.4	2115	84.8	85.6	5089	86.6	86.5
Child - Better Opportunity	1028	76.5	71.6	318	72.8	66.2	758	73.7	66.6	296	77.7	71.4	456	71.3	63.5	1702	71.5	67.2	4162	73.6	67.4
Having Children	564	61.8	64.3	169	39.9	42.7	470	45.8	48.6	168	43.9	50.3	302	46.9	47.5	1001	48.1	41.6	2657	61.8	63.9
Living Close to Parents/Family	250	18.6	15.9	73	17.1	18.5	183	18.8	16.1	67	17.6	16.1	116	18.2	16.2	387	15.5	13.6	986	16.6	14.6
Having Leisure Time	866	64.1	62.6	268	62.9	62.4	693	67.5	68.6	261	68.2	69.8	432	67.2	67.8	1868	72.2	74.7	4863	68.2	68.6

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Appendix to Tables 12 and 13

U.S.

a. Being successful in my line of work
b. Finding the right person to marry and having a happy family life
c. Having lots of money
d. Having strong friendships
e. Being able to find steady work
f. Being a leader in my community
g. Being able to give my children better opportunities than I've had
h. Living close to parents and realtives
i. Getting away from this area of the country
j. Working to correct social and economic inequalities
k. Having children
l. Having leisure time to enjoy my own interests

Japan same, except

a. Being successful in work which fits me
i. Leaving parents and becoming independent
m. Attaining a high position in a large organization

In Japan, students planning vocational education select success in work (93 percent of the males and 85 percent of the females), "having strong friendships" (about 90 percent, both) and "a happy family life" (about 79 percent, both). In the U.S. success at work is selected by both males and females (87 and 92 percent) and "finding steady work (84 and 88 percent) are ranked first and second, with females rating "a happy family life" third (85 percent) and the males opting for "strong friendships" (72 percent) in a three-way tie with "happy family life" and "better opportunities for my children" for third.

For young women planning to go to junior college in Japan, 96 percent rated "strong friendships" as very important, followed by a "happy family life (83 percent) and success at work (76 percent).

Students planning to go to junior college in the U.S. choose "success at work" and "steady work" before "happy family" and "strong friendships."

When we look at students planning to attend four-year colleges, the choices in Japan are "strong friendships" (about 90 percent of males and 93 percent of females), "success at work" (about 88 percent of males and 81 percent of females), then "having a happy family life" (76 percent of males and 74 percent of females). In the U.S., "finding steady work" (85 percent males and females) is added to "success at work" (93 percent both males and females) with "happy family life" and "strong friendships" tied for third at about 80 percent for both males and females.

There are, however, some interesting overall differences between the response of Japanese and American students that are worth considering. The first is the greater frequency in Japan of selecting "having strong friendships" as being very important. Roughly 20 percent more Japanese students (both males and females) than American at every level select this as "very important."

Second, at each level, U.S. females resemble Japanese males and females in rating "a happy family life" as very important. The comparison is presented in figure 1. Similar proportions of U.S. males and females note this "very important" only at the four-year college level.

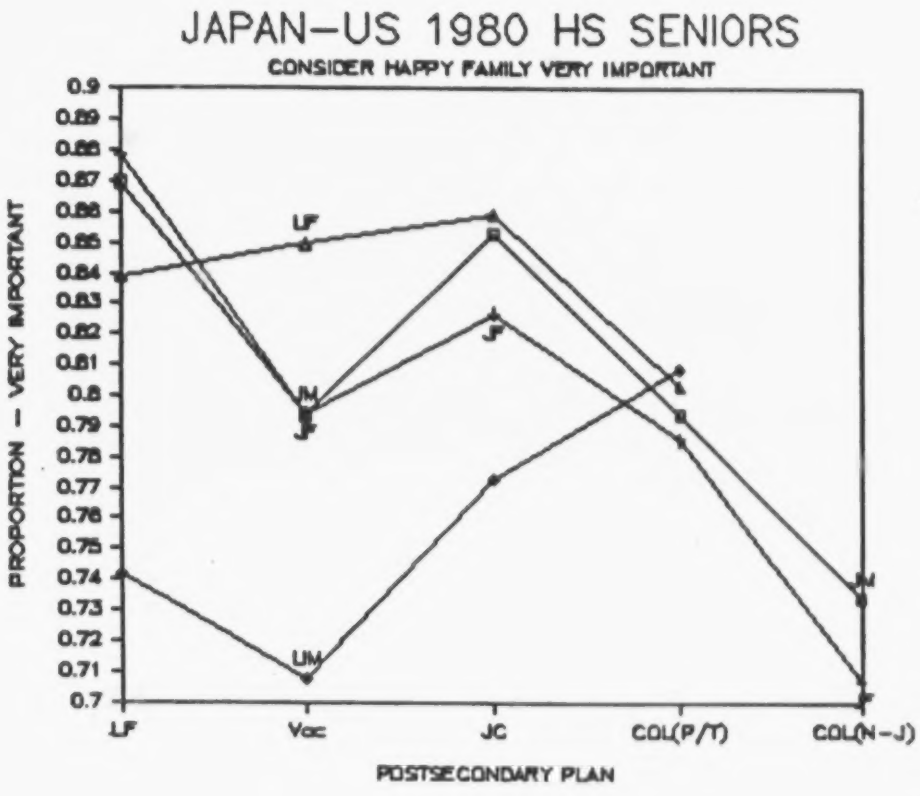
(Figure 1)

Third, when asked about the importance of "having children" about 55 percent of Japanese students ranked it as very important; about 37 percent of American did. Overall Japanese males (55 percent) select this as often as the females (54 percent). In the U.S., the females select it somewhat more often than the males (41 percent females, 34 percent males, overall).

Fourth, the concern for finding steady work pervades the responses of American students at every level. Overall, 85 percent of the students rate it as very important. Males and females answer almost identically; those going into the labor force (85 percent) and those planning to attend college select it about equally frequently (about 85 percent). This concern is somewhat less important in Japan (69 percent, overall) and decreases with level of education aspired to, so about 60 percent of males planning to go to college select it.

There is one other difference which is striking. Seventy percent of the American students indicate that it is very important that their "children have better opportunities than they had." This response remains steady up the aspiration ladder so that about the same percentage (about 72 percent) of those going into the labor force and those planning to go to four-year colleges (males and females) indicate that this is very important. In Japan this starts lower (52 percent for males and 58 percent for females entering the labor force) and decreases to about a third as aspirations rise to national universities. This may reflect the fact that students expecting to attend national universities can rarely expect their children to have better opportunities than they have had.

Figure 1:


JAPAN–US 1980 HS SENIORS
CONSIDER HAPPY FAMILY VERY IMPORTANT
PROPORTION – VERY IMPORTANT
0.9
0.89
0.88
0.87
0.86
0.85
0.84
0.83
0.82
0.81
0.8
0.79
0.78
0.77
0.76
0.75
0.74
0.73
0.72
0.71
0.7
LF
JF
UM
LM
LF
Voc
JC
COL(P/T)
COL(N-J)
POSTSECONDARY PLAN

The importance of "having lots of money" in both settings decreases with the amount of additional education planned for. Fewer females than males rate it as very important. In Japan and the U.S. the more likely you are to have money the less important you claim it to be: the importance decreases with the level of education aspired to (for example, from 39 percent in Japan and 49 percent in the U.S. of males entering the labor force to 31 percent in Japan and 39 percent in the U.S. of males planning to attend four-year colleges).

Conclusion: Models of Postsecondary Choice

It seemed quite impossible to pull together the preceding information about family backgrounds, school experiences and future plans into a unified conclusion. Instead, we decided to step back from the detail and attempt to develop and test generalized models of postsecondary choice in the two countries.

Because we are aware of many of the problems inherent in comparing social phenomena across cultural and national boundaries, we have attempted only the most cautious and conservative analysis.

Path analysis facilitates the testing of causal models for a set of variables, but requires at least ordinal variables. Since actual years of postsecondary education are associated with each of the postsecondary plans discussed, we ranked each choice for each country from 1 to 5 based on the number of years of postsecondary education it implied. We treat this as an ordinal variable, "PLAN," and use it in constructing the path models. Father's education is also treated as an ordinal measure and, with family income, is used to represent the backgrounds that students bring to the school. Hours spent on homework and grades are used to represent the student's experience in school. The frequencies for these variables as used in the model are shown

in table 14, and the standard deviations and matrices of correlations coefficients are displayed in table 15.

(Figure 2)

The path analysis models presented in figure 2 for each country fulfill the requirements described by Heise, and by Blau and Duncan; the coordinating paths among the variables in the model completely account for the correlations shown in appendix tables B1 and B2 for each country. Separately, each of the four independent variables predicts postsecondary plans (PLAN) at the .00001 level for both the U.S. and for Japan, when each variable is entered into the regression equation alone.

Perhaps the most important outcome is that each of the four independent variables retains its capacity to predict the postsecondary plans of the high school seniors in both countries even when the other three independent variables are controlled.

In the construction of any statistical model, the absence of significant coefficients connecting variables suggests variations in causal structure. There are two major differences in the models. The first is the lack of a significant coefficient connecting family income to amount of time spent on homework in the U.S. Second, there is no significant correlation between family income and grades in the model for Japan. These variables (time spent on homework and grades) reflect the student's high school experience. When attention turns to the determinants of postsecondary choice, the causal process is remarkably similar for students in the U.S. and Japan.

This has been a rapid tour through a small amount of the comparative data available in the High School and Beyond studies in Japan and the U.S. At almost every point, more analysis is needed to explore and attempt to understand

Table 14: Frequencies of Variables Recoded for Path Analysis (Japan)

JAPAN

PLAN	Value	Frequency	
Enter Labor Force	1	2567	36.6%
Trade School	2	655	9.3%
Junior College	3	640	9.1%
Private University	4	1409	20.1%
National University	5	1747	24.9%
Missing & Other		221	

FATHEDUC	Value	Frequency	
Primary	1	359	7.6%
High Primary	2	402	8.5%
Jr. High	3	706	14.9%
Middle	4	636	13.4%
High 1	5	1088	22.9%
High 2	6	365	7.7%
Trade	7	232	4.9%
Jr. College	8	51	1.1%
College	9	909	19.1%
Missing		2491	

FAMINC	Value	Frequency	
< 1 Million Yen	1	152	2.6%
1-1.99 Million Yen	2	494	8.4%
2-2.99 Million Yen	3	971	16.6%
3-3.99 Million Yen	4	1568	26.8%
4-4.99 Million Yen	5	1144	19.6%
5-5.99 Million Yen	6	654	11.2%
6-6.99 Million Yen	7	867	14.8%
Missing		1389	

HOMEWORK	Value	Frequency	
Almost None	1	1905	26.5%
30 Mins.	2	597	8.3%
1 Hr.	3	757	10.5%
1 1/2 Hrs.	4	540	7.5%
2 Hrs.	5	781	10.9%
2 1/2 Hrs.	6	460	6.4%
3 Hrs.	7	818	11.4%
3 1/2 Hrs.	8	436	6.1%
4 Hrs.	9	887	12.4%
Missing		58	

GRADES	Value	Frequency	
Best	1	200	2.9%
Level 2	2	584	8.4%
Level 3	3	909	13.1%
Level 4	4	1936	27.9%
Level 5	5	1740	25.1%
Level 6	6	673	9.7%
Level 7	7	621	9.0%
Worst	8	268	3.9%
Missing		308	

US

PLAN	Value	Frequency	
Enter Labor Force	1	2848	40.6%
Trade School	2	745	10.6%
Jr. College (Voc.)	3	690	9.8%
Jr. College (Acad.)	4	1065	15.2%
College	5	4583	65.3%
Missing & Other		2064	

FATHEDUC	Value	Frequency	
Less than H.S.	1	2525	30.2%
H.S. Graduate	2	2334	27.9%
< 2 Yrs. Post-H.S.	3	809	9.7%
> 2 Yrs. Post-H.S.	4	966	11.6%
College	5	879	10.5%
Masters	6	465	5.6%
Professional Degree	7	373	4.5%
Missing		3644	

FAMINC	Value	Frequency	
$6,999 or less	1	1117	11.1%
$7,000-$11,999	2	1558	15.5%
$12,000-$15,999	3	1750	17.4%
$16,000-$19,999	4	1660	16.5%
$20,000-$24,000	5	1604	16.0%
$25,000-$37,999	6	1280	12.7%
$38,000 or more	7	1080	10.7%
Missing		1946	

HOMEWORK	Value	Frequency	
None	1	402	3.6%
Less than 1 Hr.	2	1823	16.5%
1-3 Hrs.	3	3440	31.0%
3-5 Hrs.	4	2423	21.9%
5-10 Hrs.	5	2186	19.7%
More than 10 Hrs.	6	808	7.3%
Missing		913	

GRADES	Value	Frequency	
Best	1	1274	11.2%
Level 2	2	2321	20.4%
Level 3	3	2291	20.1%
Level 4	4	3198	28.0%
Level 5	5	1577	13.8%
Level 6	6	643	5.6%
Level 7	7	85	0.7%
Worst	8	14	0.1%
Missing		592	

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Table 15: Correlations and Standard Deviations of Variables Included in of Postsecondary Plans for 1980 High School Seniors in the U. Japan

	JAPAN Standard Deviation	US Standard Deviation
PLAN	1.63187282	1.687081
FATHEDUC	2.46924591	1.810464
FAMINC	1.54328953	1.773114
GRADES	1.57991253	1.406877
HOMEWORK	2.81808301	1.281965

Pearson's Correlation Coefficients for Variables Used in Models

JAPAN

	PLAN	FATHEDUC	FAMINC	GRADES	HOMEWORK
PLAN	1	0.37018	0.24527	-0.07702	0.67407
FATHEDUC		1	0.29394	0.00302	0.28448
FAMINC			1	-0.02447	0.17909
GRADES				1	-0.18385
HOMEWORK					1

N = 4101

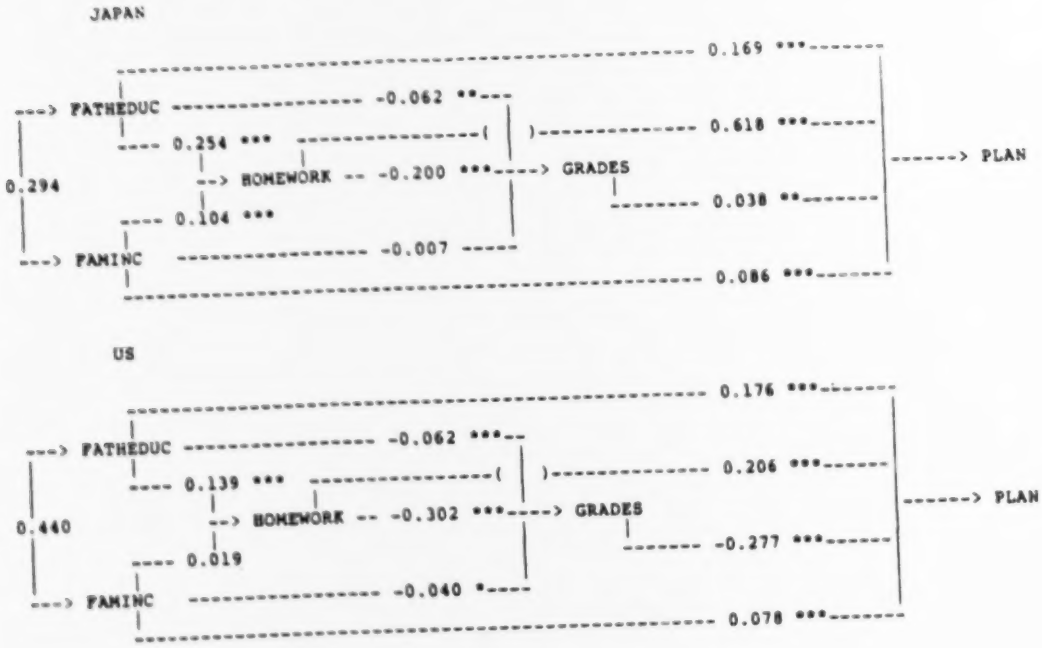
US

	PLAN	FATHEDUC	FAMINC	GRADES	HOMEWORK
PLAN	1	0.2748	0.19683	-0.37001	0.32459
FATHEDUC		1	0.44004	-0.12374	0.14718
FAMINC			1	-0.09151	0.08004
GRADES				1	-0.31437
HOMEWORK					1

N = 6447

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Figure 2. Path Models of Postsecondary Choice for 1980 High School Seniors in Japan and the U.S.



* Significant at .01 level.
** Significant at .001 level.
*** Significant at .0001 level.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

apparent similarities and differences. If this had been our starting point we could have asked deeper questions. For this reason, we call our paper "an introductory comparative analysis."

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Anderson, Ronald S. Education in Japan. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1975.

Aso, Makoto and Amano, Ikuo. Education and Japan's Modernization. Tokyo: The Japan Times, Ltd., 1983.

Aso, Makato and Kondo, Hiroyuki. "Institutional Stability of Senshu Gakko." Osaka, n.d.

Beauchamp, Edward R. "Report from Japan 1976." In Learning to be Japanese. Edited by E. Beauchamp. Hamden, Conn.: Linnet, 1978.

Bowman, Mary Jean. Educational Choice and Labor Markets in Japan. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1981.

Cantor, Leonard. "Vocational Education and Training: The Japanese Approach." Comparative Education 21, 1 (1985):67-76.

Cogan, J. J. "Should the U.S. Mimic Japanese Education? Let's Look before We Leap." Phi Delta Kappan (March 1984):463-468.

Cummings, William K. Education and Equality in Japan. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1980.

_____. "Japan." In The School and the University: An International Perspective. Edited by B. Clark.

Fetters, William B.; Owings, Jeffrey A.; Suter, Larry E.; and Takai, Ricky T. "Schooling Experiences in Japan and the U.S.: A Cross-National Comparison of High School Students." Paper presented at the 1983 Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Montreal, Canada.

Government of Japan. The Present Situation of Youth in Japan. 1983.

Havens, Thomas R. H. "Changing Styles of University Life in Japan." In Learning To Be Japanese. Edited by E. Beauchamp. Hamden, Conn.: Linnet Books, 1978.

Keizai Koho Center, Japan Institute for Social and Economic Affairs. Japan, 1984, An International Comparison. Tokyo, September 1, 1984.

Ichikawa, Shogo. "American Perceptions of Japanese Education." In Learning from Each Other. Edited by W. K. Cummings. Praeger, forthcoming.

Japan Youth Research Institute (Tamotsu Sengoku, Director). High School and Beyond Survey, Japan and USA Comparisons Using the Base Year Data about High School Life and Future Occupational Life. Tokyo, December 1981 (in Japanese).

_____. High School and Beyond Study, Comparisons Including Follow-Up Data. 1984 (in Japanese).

Kato, Hidetoshi. Education and Youth Employment in Japan. Berkeley: Carnegie Council on Policy Studies in Higher Education, 1978.

Kitamura, Kazuyuki. "The Decline and Reform of Education in Japan: A Comparative Perspective." In Learning from Each Other. Edited by W. K. Cummings. Praeger, forthcoming.

Maruyama, Fumihiro. "The Process and Structure of Student Characteristics Formation in Japanese Higher Education." Ph.D. dissertation, Department of Administration and Curriculum, 1983, Michigan State University.

Mombusho, Brochure. Tokyo: Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, 1981.

Pempel, T. J. Patterns of Japanese Policymaking: Experiences from Higher Education. Boulder, Colo.: Westview Press, 1978.

Rohlen, Thomas P. Japan's High Schools. Berkeley: University of California Press, 1983.

Sengoku, Tamotsu. "Japanese Education and Permanent Employment Structure." Paper prepared for The Thirteenth International Conference on the Unity of the Sciences, Washington, D.C., September 2-5, 1984.

Tobin, Joseph J. "American Images of Japanese Secondary and Higher Education." In Learning from Each Other. Edited by W. K. Cummings. Praeger, forthcoming.

Tsukada, Mamoru. "A Factual Overview of Japanese and American Education." In Learning from Each Other. Edited by W. K. Cummings. Praeger, forthcoming.

Ushiogi, Morikazu. "Transition from School to Work: The Japanese Case." In Learning from Each Other. Edited by W. K. Cummings. Praeger, forthcoming.

Woronoff, Jon. Japan, the Coming Social Crisis. Tokyo: Lotus Press, 1980.